

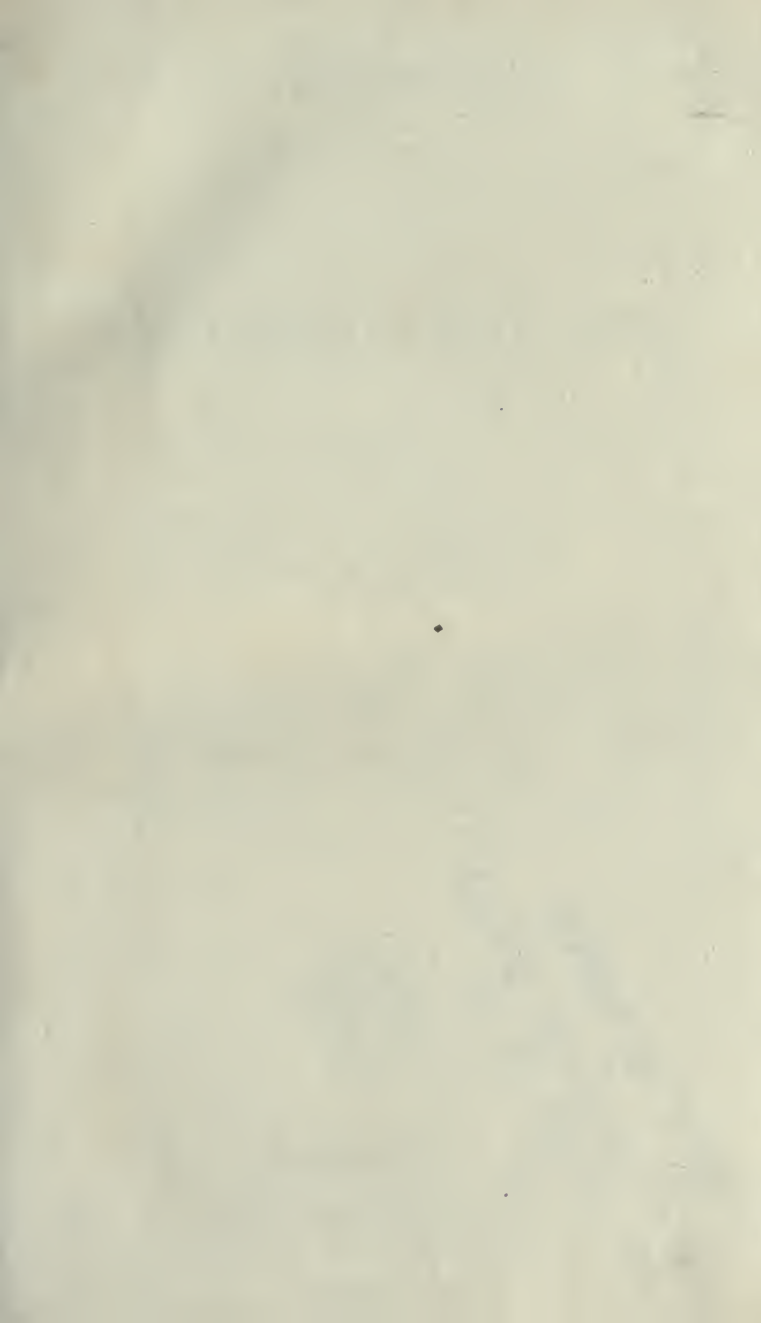
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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

WITH AN

Analysis of the Sentence.

BY JOHN S. HART, LL.D.,

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ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, ETC., ETC.



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By JOHN S. HART, LL.D.

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English Grammar and Analysis.
First Lessons in Composition.
Composition and Rhetoric.
A Short Course in Literature.
A Manual of English Literature.
A Manual of American Literature.

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PREFACE.



THE author, having in great measure rewritten his English Grammar, presents it once more to the consideration of the teachers of the country. The work, as now offered, is the result of long experience in the class-room, and of no little reading and study. The English language and its literature have been for many years the main subjects of the author's inquiry, and he has endeavored in this volume to give the results of his observations in the form which his experience as a teacher has convinced him to be the best adapted to the wants of the learner.

The points aimed at have been twofold:

First, to give some knowledge of grammar in general. This is the more necessary, as most of those who study English grammar study no other language, and have no other means of studying the laws of language as a means of expressing thought.

Secondly, to set forth the forms and laws peculiar to the English language. The English has indeed been called, somewhat irreverently, "the grammarless tongue." Its inflections, it must be confessed, are meagre, as compared with those of the Latin and Greek. Such is the condition of almost every modern tongue. Yet our English has its idioms, as every foreigner learns to his cost, and is not entirely without its inflections. An accurate knowledge of these idioms and inflections is of incalculable value to every one who would be at home in the use of the language.

There is an opinion widely prevalent among the teachers of classical

schools, that boys fitting for college have no need to study English grammar. From that opinion the author begs leave respectfully, but most earnestly, to dissent. If he mistakes not, a growing majority of those who are called upon to examine candidates for admission to college will bear him out in his position. The study of Latin and Greek gives indeed a knowledge of the grammar of those languages, and some knowledge of grammar in general, but it does *not* give a knowledge of English grammar. Does Latin grammar teach a boy our common rules for Spelling, which are a guide to the correct writing of not less than twenty thousand English words? Does it teach him the origin, form, and uses of the English Possessive? Does it, to take one instance out of hundreds that might be named, teach him the syntax of the phrase "*For David thy father's sake*"? Does it teach him the rules for the formation of the English Plural? —the peculiarities of the Past Participle Active? Does it not lead him into grave mistakes in regard to the forms and uses of the English verb?

A word as to the method pursued. The author has endeavored to bear in mind that he was writing, not a treatise for the learned, but a text-book for learners. For such a book,—

The first and most imperative demand is CLEARNESS, —clearness of arrangement, and clearness of expression.

Next and hardly less imperative is the demand that the more and the less important should be carefully discriminated, and the difference plainly set forth to the eye.

A third imperative demand is that the rules, definitions, and other matter to be committed to memory, should be expressed with the utmost possible conciseness.

A fourth requisite is that every rule and definition should be supported and illustrated by a goodly array of apt practical examples. These are as necessary in teaching grammar as sums are in teaching arithmetic.

How far these things have been secured is for the reader to judge.

J. S. H.

PRINCETON, N. J., June 26, 1874.



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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.



Grammar is the science which treats of Language.*

Explanations.— We say that Arithmetic is the science which treats of numbers, Botany is the science which treats of plants, Astronomy is the science which treats of the stars. So, Grammar is the science which treats of language.*

Knowledge on any subject, arranged in some regular order, is called a Science.

The words which a people use in speaking or writing are called a Language.

The object of studying Grammar is to be able to understand, speak, and write a language correctly.

Most of the terms used in Grammar are derived from Greek and Latin words. The meaning and derivation of these terms will be given in the notes. The teacher will observe, however, that in many instances the terms are now used in a sense considerably different from the original meaning. Still, the connection between the present use of the word and its original meaning can generally be traced, and the teacher should always so trace it, where practicable.

Note.— Grammar takes its name from the Greek word *gramma* (γράμμα), a letter, or a writing, because it treats particularly of written language.*

Grammar is divided into four parts; namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

* See Note to Teachers on page 10.

Orthography treats of *Letters*, Etymology of *Words*, Syntax of *Sentences*, and Prosody of *Versification*.

Note.—This fourfold division has been retained here in deference to long established custom. In the present treatise, however, certain changes have been adopted.

There is some doubt whether Part first, Orthography, does not belong to the Spelling-Book rather than to the Grammar. But there are so many things in Orthography which are not taught in the Spelling-Books, which at least the scholar does not ordinarily learn in using them, and which he needs to know before entering upon the study of Grammar, that it seems hardly safe to omit this study altogether from a text-book on the subject.

Part third, Sentences, is treated under two distinct heads, Syntax and Analysis.

Part fourth, Prosody, belongs so manifestly to Rhetoric, that the treatment of it is comparatively brief, the student who desires more extended information being referred to the author's work on Composition and Rhetoric, where the subject is treated with some degree of fulness.



NOTE TO TEACHERS.

THE matter in this book is divided into three kinds, indicated by three varieties of type, and it is important that the object of this arrangement should be clearly understood.

1. It is intended that the scholar should first go through the book, learning the matter in the largest type only, with the declensions and conjugations; and with such oral explanations from the teacher, and such portion of the Exercises, as may be found expedient.

2. Having gone over the whole ground once, or perhaps twice, in this way, the scholar will be prepared to take up profitably the remaining portion of the Exercises, and the matter in the intermediate type. This intermediate matter, however, is not intended to be committed to memory *verbatim*, like the rules and definitions in the largest type.

3. The matter in the smallest type is for the purpose of explaining and defending the positions taken in the text. It is addressed to the teacher rather than to the scholar. The more advanced scholars might be encouraged—if intelligent and studious they will probably be tempted—of their own accord, and at the proper time, to read this fine print matter. But it should be rarely, if ever, made the subject of examination, and *it should in no case be required to be committed to memory*.



FIRST PART.



ORTHOGRAPHY.

THE first part of Grammar is called ORTHOGRAPHY.*
Orthography treats of LETTERS.

Note.—Orthography takes its name from the Greek words *orthos* (ὀρθός), correct, and *graphe* (γραφή), writing, because it teaches the correct mode of writing.

Orthography treats first of letters taken separately, and then of the mode of forming them into syllables and words, which is called spelling.

The treatment of the Points and of the other characters used in writing, embracing the rules of Punctuation, belongs properly to Orthography. But the most important of these rules cannot be understood by the pupil until he is familiar with the principles of Grammar. This topic, therefore, is treated at the close of the book.

I. LETTERS TAKEN SEPARATELY.

Letters are written characters or signs used to represent certain sounds of the human voice.

A letter that is not sounded in speaking is called a *silent* letter.

*See Note to Teachers on page 10.

The letters of any Language are called its **Alphabet**.

Note.—Alphabet takes its name from *alpha* (*ἄλφα*) and *beta* (*βῆτα*), the names of the first two letters in the Greek alphabet, corresponding to our *a* and *b*. Thus we often call our alphabet the *a b c*.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

Letters are divided into **VOWELS** and **CONSONANTS**.
Consonants are subdivided into **MUTES** and **SEMI-VOWELS**.

A Vowel may be fully sounded by itself.

A Consonant cannot be fully sounded unless in connection with a vowel.

Note.—Vowel takes its name from the Latin *vocalis*, vocal, because it may be sounded freely and fully by itself, without the aid of any other letters. Consonant takes its name from the Latin words *con*, with, and *sonans*, sounding, because sounding with another letter, that is, not capable of being sounded perfectly by itself.*

This division of the letters into Vowels, Semi-vowels, and Consonants began with Aristotle, B. C. 330, and has been accepted by nearly all grammarians until very recent times. The bewildering nomenclature of Tonics, Subtonics, Atonics, Obstructed, Unobstructed, Simple, Serial, Explodent, Continuant, etc., which has grown up of late years, has originated apparently in not distinguishing sufficiently between the *letters* of a language and its elementary *sounds*. It is the business of the Elocutionist to analyze and classify the sounds of a language; that of the Grammarian to classify and name its letters; and no division or nomenclature invented since the days of Aristotle has greater practical convenience, or better expresses the true functions of the letters themselves, in their relations to Grammar, than that suggested by the Greek philosopher twenty-two centuries ago.

This classification, as conceived by him, has its foundation in the action of the vocal organs in uttering the letters.

When the mouth, throat, and other organs of speech are opened in a particular position, and the voice is allowed to flow out in a continuous and uniform current, without any change in the position of the organs, the sound so formed is called a **Vowel**. In this manner we may prolong the sound of *a* indefinitely, or until out of breath. If, while the voice is thus issuing from the mouth, the current of sound is interrupted by a partial compression of the organs, the sound becomes a **Semi-vowel**. Thus,

while prolonging the sound of *a*, if we press the tongue upon the upper part of the mouth, but allow the voice still to proceed, the sound becomes that of the letter *l*, as in the word *ale*. If this compression becomes so great as actually to close the organs, the sound ceases, and in the very act of ceasing gives rise to a **Mute**. Thus, in the case just mentioned, if instead of pressing the tongue upon the roof of the mouth, we press it against the teeth, and entirely stop the passage of the voice, the actual termination of the sound is that indicated by the letter *t*, as in the word *ate*. This process may be reversed. The letter *t* may be formed first and the vowel follow it, as in pronouncing the word *tale*. In this case the mute is the very beginning of sound.

A **Mute**, then, is the mere commencement or termination of the sound, on opening or closing the organs; a **Semi-vowel** is a partial interruption or modification of the sound, caused by changing the position of the organs during utterance; and a **Vowel** is the very sound itself prolonged without change.

Vowels.

The **VOWELS** are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. All the other letters are **CONSONANTS**.

Note. — *W* and *y* are consonants when they precede a vowel sound in the same syllable; but are vowels in all other places.

A **Diphthong** is the union of two vowels in one sound.

A **Proper diphthong** is one in which both the vowels are sounded. The Proper diphthongs are two, namely, *oi* and *ou*, as in *loin*, *loud*.

An **Improper diphthong** is one in which only one vowel is sounded; as, *oa* in *boat*. The Improper diphthongs are numerous, and need not be repeated. Strictly speaking, they are not diphthongs, but merely single vowel sounds preceded or followed by other vowels that are not sounded.

A **Triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *ieu* in *adieu*.

The triphthongs are three in number, *eau*, *ieu*, *iew*; as in *beauty*, *lieutenant*, *review*. Like the improper diphthongs, they contain only one vowel sound.

Note 1. — *U* after *q* is never counted as part of a diphthong or of a triphthong.

Note 2. — Diphthong and triphthong take their names from the Greek words *dis* (δῖς) and *tris* (τρίς), two and three, and *phthongos* (φθογγός), sound.

Consonants.

The Consonants are divided into **MUTES** and **SEMI-VOWELS**.

The Mutes and Semi-vowels may be distinguished both by the name and by the sound.

In naming the mutes, the accompanying vowel generally follows; as, *pe*, *be*; in naming the semi-vowels, the accompanying vowel precedes; as, *ef*, *el*.

In sounding the mutes, the voice is stopped short, as in *ap*; in sounding the semi-vowels, the voice may be prolonged, as in *al*.

The mutes are *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, *k*, *q*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels are *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*; *c* and *g* soft, and *j*; *w* and *y* when they are not vowels; *h*; *f* and *v*; *s* and *z*; *x*.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are also called **LIQUIDS**.

The consonants are sometimes divided according to the part of the vocal organs by which they are formed. The principal divisions of this sort are *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals*, and *linguals*.

These terms are derived from the Latin: *labium*, lip; *dens*, *dentis*, tooth; *palatum*, palate; *guttur*, throat; *nasus*, nose; *lingua*, tongue.

Labials are formed chiefly by the *lips*, Dentals by the *teeth*, Palatals by the *palate*, Gutturals by the *throat*, Nasals by the *nose*, and Linguals by the *tongue*.

The Labials are *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*; the Dentals *t*, *d*, *c* soft, *s*, *z*; the Palatals *g* soft and *j*; the Gutturals *k*, *q*, and *c* and *g* hard; the Nasals *m* and *n*; and the Linguals *l* and *r*.

Exercises.—In the following words, take each letter, as it stands, and say whether it is a vowel or a consonant; in enumerating the vowels, tell which of them, if any, form diphthongs or triphthongs; in enumerating the consonants, say of each whether it is a mute or a semi-vowel:—multitudinous, frequently, upheaval, influential, algebra, robbery, lieutenant, grotesque, reviewing, ocean, herbaceous, knowledge, slaughter, employer, thievish, joyfully.

Note. — For the sounds of the letters, the learner is referred to the Spelling-Book and the Dictionary.

II. WORDS AND SYLLABLES.

A Word is a collection of letters used together to represent some idea.

A few words consist of only one letter each.

A Syllable is so much of a word as can be pronounced by one impulse of the voice ; as, *con* in *contain*.

Spelling is putting letters together correctly so as to form syllables and words.

Note. — Syllable takes its name from the Greek words *syl* (συλ), together, and *labein* (λαβεῖν), to take, because the letters which form a syllable are taken together, in one impulse of the voice.

What is meant by syllable and by impulse of the voice can be best explained orally, that is, by the teacher's actually sounding syllables successively in the scholar's hearing, and calling his attention to the manner in which the sound comes from the mouth. When one syllable is ended and another is about to begin, the parts of the mouth and throat used for making the sound, take a new position, and a sort of jerk, or additional force, is given to the voice. This additional force, is what is meant by impulse.

Note. — There are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels and diphthongs, not counting those which are silent or unsounded.

A word of one syllable is called a **Monosyllable** ; of two, a **Dissyllable** ; of three, a **Trisyllable** ; of more than three, a **Polysyllable**.

Example. — Truth is *a monosyllable* ; truth-ful, *a dissyllable* ; truth-ful-ness, *a trisyllable* ; un-truth-ful-ness, *a polysyllable*.

Note. — Monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, and polysyllable, take their names from the Greek words *monos* (μόνος), one, *dis* (δύς), two, *tris* (τρίς), three, and *poly* (πολύ), many, combined with *syllable*.

Exercise. — Tell to which class each of the following words belongs : nation, uprightness, incomprehensible, authority, frequent, plague, opportunity, horse, element, elementary, robber, vowel, consonant.

Note. — The teacher may add other examples at will.



Rules for Spelling.

RULE I.—Y final.

Part 1. — *Y* final, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* on taking a suffix ; as, *fanc-y*, *fanc-i-ful*, (not *fanc-y-ful*.)

A suffix is something added to the end of a word.

Exception 1. — Before *ous*, *y* sometimes becomes *e* ; as, *beaut-y*, *beaut-e-ous*.

Exception 2. — Before *ing*, *y* is not changed ; as, *tarr-y*, *tarr-y-ing*.

Part 2. — *Y* final, preceded by a vowel, is not changed on taking a suffix ; as, *play*, *play-er*.

Exceptions. — *Day*, which makes *daily* ; *lay*, *pay*, and *say*, which make *laid*, *paid*, and *said*, together with various other derivatives and compounds, as *mis-laid*, *unpaid*, *unsaid*, etc.

Exercises. — Spell the words formed by adding *ful* to *mercy*, *plenty*, *bounty*, *duty*, *pity* ; by adding *es* and *ing* to *cry*, *pry*, *try*, *apply*, *deny*, *rely* ; by adding *er* and *est* to *merry*, *sorry*, *saucy*, *holy*.

Correct any of the following which need correction, and give the Rule for each change : *like-ly-hood*, *handy-craft*, *quarry-ed*, *journey-ed*, *beauty-ful*, *glory-ous*, *pity-ous*, *pity-ful*, *melody-es*, *melody-ous*, *gay-ety*, *gay-ly*, *witty-ly*, *witty-er*, *betray-er*, *journey-ing*.

Original Exercises. — In addition to the examples in the book, both in the rules and the exercises, bring, written, of your own invention, the following :

Ten examples of *y* final changed to *i*, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *y* final becoming *e*, under Exception 1.

Five examples of *y* final not changed, under Exception 2.

Ten examples of *y* final not changed, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE II.—E final, silent.

Part 1.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel, is dropped; as, *care*, *car-ing*.

Exception 1.—*Ie*, on taking the suffix *ing*, is changed into *y*; as, *die*, *dy-ing*.

Exception 2.—*Dye* (to color), *hoe*, and *shoe* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing*; as, *dye-ing*, *hoe-ing*, *shoe-ing*.

Exception 3.—*Singe*, *swinge*, and *tinge* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing*. This is to retain the soft sound of the *g*, and to distinguish them from the corresponding forms of *sing*, *swing*, *ting*. Thus: *sing-ing*, *swing-ing*, *ting-ing*; *singe-ing*, *swinge-ing*, *tinge-ing*.

Exception 4.—*Ce* and *ge*, on taking a suffix beginning with *a*, *o*, or *u*, do not drop the *e*. This is to retain the soft sound of the *c* and *g*. Thus: *service-able*, not *servic-able*; *change-able*, not *chang-able*.

Part 2.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant, is not dropped; as, *care*, *care-ful*.

Exceptions.—*Judgment*, *lodgment*, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, *argument*; *wisdom*, *nursling*; *duly*, *truly*, *awful*, with some corresponding derivatives of *due* and *true*, such as *duty*, *dutiful*, *truth*, *truthful*, etc.

Exercises.—Spell the words formed by adding *ing* to *bite*, *force*, *revive*; by adding *able* to *admire*, *adore*, *deplore*.

Form the following compounds, and give the rule for each change: *ripe-en*, *ripe-ness*, *smoke-ing*, *lie-ing*, *sphere-ical*, *disputant*, *tire-some*, *tie-ing*, *tie-ed*, *pave-ment*, *pave-ing*, *serve-ice-able*, *defense-ible*, *defense-less*, *cure-able*, *marriage-able*, *trace-ing*, *trace-able*, *fame-ous*, *courage-ous*, *re-pulse-ive-ness*.

Original Exercises.—Bring, written, of your own invention:—

Ten examples of *e* final dropped, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *ie* changed to *y*, under Exception 1.

Ten examples of *e* final not dropped, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE III.—Words ending in *ll*.

Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *full*, *ful-ness*; also sometimes on taking a prefix; as, *full*, *hand-ful*; *till*, *un-til*.

Note.—Words ending in any other double letter are spelt in composition in the same manner as when alone; as, *stiff*, *stiff-ness*.

Exercises.—Spell the words formed by adding to *all* the words *though*, *together*; by combining *with* and *all*; by combining *arm* and *full*.

Form the following compounds, and give the Rule for each change: *full-fill*, *tall-er*, *buzz-ing*, *all-ways*, *well-come*, *use-full*, *all-most*, *puff-ing*.

Original Exercises.—Bring, written, of your own invention:—

Ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a suffix.

Ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a prefix.

RULE IV.—Doubling the final consonant.

In words accented on the last syllable, a final consonant, if single, and if preceded by a single vowel, is doubled on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *permit*, *permit-t-ing*.

Monosyllables, being always accented, come of course under this rule.

Note.—Here are four conditions: 1. The last syllable must have the accent; 2. It must end in a single consonant; 3. This single consonant must be preceded by a single vowel; 4. The suffix must begin with a vowel.

Examples.—In *offer-ing*, the first condition is wanting; in *torment-ing*, the second condition; in *appeal-ing*, the third; in *aver-ment*, the fourth.

There are more than sixty words about which there is a disagreement among lexicographers as to whether the final consonant should or should not be doubled. These words, ending chiefly in *l*, conform to the other three conditions of the rule, but are not accented on the last syllable. Webster and those who accept him as an authority do not double the final consonant in these cases. Worcester and his English predecessors, Richardson, Walker, Johnson and others, do double the final consonant. Worcester writes *travel*, *travelling*, *traveller*; *worship*, *worshipping*, *worshipper*. Webster writes *travel*, *traveling*, *traveler*; *worship*, *worshipping*, *worshiper*.

The words in question are the following: *worship*, *kidnap*, *compromit*, *bias*; *carburet*, *sulphuret* and some other like words in chemistry; and the following fifty-three in *l*, namely, *apparel*, *bevel*, *bowel*, *embowel*, *cancel*, *carol*, *cavil*, *channel*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *cudgel*, *dishevel*, *drivel*, *duel*, *enamel*, *equal*, *gambol*, *gravel*, *grovel*, *hatchel*, *housel*, *jewel*, *kennel*, *label*, *laurel*, *level*, *libel*, *marshal*, *marvel*, *model*, *panel*, *empanel*, *parallel*, *parcel*, *pencil*, *peril*, *imperil*, *pistol*, *pommel*, *quarrel*, *ravel*, *unravel*, *revel*, *rival*, *rowel*, *shovel*, *shrivel*, *snivel*, *tassel*, *trammel*, *travel*, *tunnel*, *victual*.

Exercises.—Spell the words formed by adding *ing* and *ed* to *remit*, *impel*; *ist* to *drug*, *machine*, *novel*, *natural*; *er* to *revel*; *ed* to *fulfil*, *rub*, *fail*, *refer*; *ing* to *squat*, *sail*, *gallop*, *hum*; *ant* to *assist*; *ent* to *excel*; *ine* to *adamant*; *ate* to *alien*, *origin*; *en* to *red*, *moist*, *fright*; *ar* to *consul*; *er* to *propel*; *ous* to *mountain*; *y* to *mud*, *meal*, *sleep*; *ee* to *commit*, *absent*, *patent*; *ard* to *slug*, *drunk*. N. B.—In forming each combination, give the Rule applicable to it.

Original Exercises.—Bring, written, of your own invention:—

Ten examples of doubling the final consonant under the Rule.

Five examples in which the *first* condition only is wanting.

Five, in which the *second* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *third* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *fourth* only is wanting.

RULE V.—The terminations *eive* and *ieve*.

In such words as *receive*, *relieve*, etc., *ei* is used if the letter *c* precedes; as, *receive*, *deceive*; but *ie* is used if any other letter precedes; as, *relieve*, *believe*.

Exercise.—Correct the mistakes, if any, in the following words: *retreive*, *perceive*, *acheive*, *concieve*.

Miscellaneous Exercises.

Spell the following words, making the necessary corrections, and show in each case the application of the Rule.

1. Live-ing, live-ly-est, all-so, boy-ish, compel-ing, assail-ing, repent-ing, compuls-ory, commit-ed, commit-ment.

2. Happy-ness, art-full, whole-some, smoke-y, trick-y, love-able, love-ly-ness, true-th-full-ness, due-ty-full-ly.

3. Copy-ing, copy-ed, delay-ed, whole-ly, induce-ing, induce-ment, propel-ing, embroil-ing, infer-ing, infer-ence.

4. Refine-er, refine-ment, amaze-ing, amaze-ment, glory-ous, beauty-ous, beauty-full, libel-er, sulphuret-ed, whip-ing.

5. Full-some, awe-full, all-ways, well-fare, abet-ing, consent-ing, recruit-ing, differ-ing, fulfil-ment.





SECOND PART.



ETYMOLOGY.

THE second part of Grammar is called ETYMOLOGY.

Note.—Etymology takes its name from the Greek words *etymos* (ἔτυμος), true [root], and *logos* (λόγος), discourse or treatise, because it treats of the true roots and meanings of words.

Etymology treats of WORDS.

Words are considered in regard to their Classification, Inflection, and Derivation.

By the **Classification** of words is meant the arrangement of them into different classes, according to their signification and use.

By the **Inflection** of words is meant the change of form which they undergo.

By the **Derivation** of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

The classes of words in English are nine; namely, ARTICLES, NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, VERBS,

ADVERBS, CONJUNCTIONS, PREPOSITIONS, and INTERJECTIONS.

Note.—These classes of words are sometimes called the **Parts of Speech**.



I. ARTICLES.

An **Article** is a word placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite, or in an indefinite sense.

Note.—Article takes its name from the Latin word *articulus*, a joint

The Articles are *a* and *the*.

A is the INDEFINITE Article, *the* is the DEFINITE Article.

The Article *a* is written *an* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as, *a man, an old man, an honest man*.

Note.—In determining whether to use *a*, or to use *an*, we should notice, not the letter, but the real sound, with which the next word begins.

Sometimes a vowel at the beginning of a word has the sound of a consonant. Thus *o* in *one* is pronounced as if the word began with the consonant sound of *w*; *u* in *unit* is pronounced as if the word began with the consonant sound of *y*. In such cases the article should be *a*. On the other hand, the consonant *h* at the beginning of a word is sometimes not sounded, as in *honest* (pronounced *onest*). In that case, the article should be *an*. The following words, and words derived from them, are some of those which begin with silent *h*; *honor, honest, hour, heir, herb, humble, hostler*.

A or *an* means one, and is used only before the singular number; as, *a man, an apple*.

The is used before both numbers; as, *the man, the men.*

Note 1.—*A* and *the* may be considered the same as *one* and *that*, only abbreviated in form, and unemphatic in meaning.

Note 2.—Some nouns in the singular without an article before them are taken in the widest sense for a whole species; as, *man*, for mankind. This usage, however, is by no means universal. On the contrary, in many words, the article is used for this very purpose; as, *the horse*, for horses in general.

A or *an* was originally *ae*, *ane*, or *one*. In course of time it became abbreviated into its present form, and by a usage not uncommon in the history of language, the short form acquired a shade of meaning different from the long form, though both were originally precisely the same. The difference is this. *One* expresses the idea of unity with emphasis. *A* expresses the same idea, only without emphasis. This will be understood at once by an example. "Can *one* man carry this weight?" "No, but *two* could." "Can *a man* carry this weight?" "No, but *a horse* could." The idea of unity is expressed in both of these examples; but in the former it is emphatic, in the latter it is not. In the former, *one* is the leading idea, as distinguished from two or more; in the latter, *man* is the leading idea, as distinguished from horse or other animal.

A similar remark may be made in regard to *the*. The word *the* was originally *thaet* or *that*. In course of time it became abbreviated, and the short form acquired, in usage, a shade of meaning different from the original long one. *That* is demonstrative with emphasis; *the* is demonstrative without emphasis.

That these words have acquired a real difference in meaning as well as in form, is evident. 1. Because *a* and *the* cannot stand without a noun, *one* and *that* can. Thus, I can say, "Give me *one*, give me *that*," but I cannot say, "Give me *a*, give me *the*." 2. Because *a* and *the* do not necessarily contradistinguish from *two* and *this*, as *one* and *that* do. 3. Because in many cases they are evidently not interchangeable. "*A kingdom for a horse*," and "*one kingdom for one horse*," express different ideas. "*The revolution*," means, in this country, "*the American*" revolution. "*That revolution*" may or may not mean so.

In considering the article as forming a separate part of speech, I have acted in conformity to the immemorial usage of all languages. The proper rank of *a* seems to be with the indefinite pronouns, and that of *the* with the demonstrative pronouns. If Grammar were a science to be written anew, very likely both the article and the adjective pronouns would be called, as in their nature they truly are, Adjectives. Even in that case, however, it is to be remarked, not so much would be gained in the way of simplification as some persons have supposed. We should require in that case a subdi-

vision of adjectives, corresponding to the present subdivision of the adjective pronouns, for these words have differences of meaning and construction, and, in those languages which admit of changes of termination, differences also of form, that clearly distinguish them, both from ordinary adjectives, and from each other.

Exercises.—Name the appropriate indefinite article to be used before each of the following words: Ewe, yew, eye, ear, watch, one-eyed man, European, Indian, umbrella, use, end, day, opening, engineer, horse, honest, hiatus, human, humble, onion, orchard, usury.



Parsing Exercise.—Parse “an” in the sentence “Give me *an* apple.”

Model.—“An” is the indefinite article, placed before the noun “apple,” to show that it is used in an indefinite sense.

Parsing takes its name from the Latin word *pars*, part, because it shows the several parts of speech into which a sentence is divided.

Parsing consists in stating the grammatical properties and relations of words, and the rules of syntax which properly belong to them. The parsing of a word cannot be complete until the rules of syntax relating to it are understood and applied. But a considerable part of parsing consists in stating the grammatical properties of a word by itself, as shown by etymology, and without reference to the other words in the sentence. The stating of these properties in regular order is called Etymological Parsing. Exercises in etymological parsing will be given under each Part of Speech.



II. NOUNS.

A **Noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing ; as, *boy, school, book.*

Note 1.—The word *thing* in the foregoing definition is used in its widest sense, to signify not merely external objects which may be seen and handled, but whatever may be a subject of thought or discourse.

Note 2.—Letters and words used technically are to be considered nouns ; as, “*C* is sounded hard before *a, o, u, &c.* ;” “*lb* means pound.” “*Me* is a pronoun.” “*+* is the sign of addition.”

Note 3.—Noun comes from the Latin *nomen*, a name.

To the Teacher.—If the scholar begins his study of Grammar with this book, instead of first going through some more elementary treatise, the teacher should make him pause here, until, by repeated explanations, and by going over exercises again and again, he has become quite familiar with the nature of nouns, and can promptly distinguish them in going through a sentence. Exercises suitable for this purpose will be found in the author’s “Language Lessons for Beginners,” pp. 5–13.

The noun is the starting-point in teaching a scholar to analyze a sentence.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two general classes, **PROPER** and **COMMON**.

A **Proper noun** is a name given to only one of a class of objects ; as, *John, London, Delaware*.

Note.—A Proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

A **Common noun** is a name given to any one of a class of objects ; as, *boy, city, river*.

Explanation.—There is a class of objects called “boys.” The name “boy” is given to any one of that class. It is *common* to them all. One particular boy is called “John.” That name is given to him only. It is peculiar or *proper* to him. So “city” is a name given *in common* to any one of another class of objects. But “London” is the name given to one particular city. It belongs peculiarly and *properly* to that city. Any one of a certain other class of objects is called a “river.” The name is *common* to all such objects. But one particular object of this kind is called “Delaware.” It belongs *properly* to that particular river.

Exercises.—Which of the following nouns are Proper, and which Common? Which should begin with a capital letter? remark, austria, empire, country, holland, queen, victoria, illinois, poet, milton.

Original Exercises.—Bring, written, ten Common nouns, and ten Proper nouns, besides those in the foregoing list.

FURTHER CLASSIFICATION.

Some Common nouns are further classified as COLLECTIVE, ABSTRACT, VERBAL, and DIMINUTIVE.

A Collective noun is the name of a collection of objects considered as one; as, *army, crowd*. A Collective noun is also called a noun of Multitude.

An Abstract noun is one which denotes the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs; as, *sweetness, beauty*. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives.

A Verbal noun is one derived from a verb; as, *reading*. It is also called a PARTICIPIAL noun.

A Diminutive noun is one derived from another noun, and expressing some object of the same kind but smaller; as, *stream, streamlet; leaf, leaflet; hill, hillock; duck, duckling; goose, gosling*.

Exercises.—To what kind or class does each of the following Common nouns belong? islet, spelling, lambkin, hillock, acuteness, loyalty, flock, senate.

Original Exercises.—Bring, written, of your own invention, ten Collective nouns; ten Abstract nouns; ten Verbal nouns; three Diminutive nouns.

II. ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS.

Nouns have the attributes of GENDER, NUMBER, PERSON, and CASE.

A noun has the attribute of Gender from its expressing sex; of Number, from its expressing unity and plurality; of Person, from its expressing the relation of the noun to the speaker; and of Case, from its expressing the relation of the noun to some verb, preposition, or other noun.

I. GENDER.

Gender is the distinction of nouns and pronouns in regard to SEX.

Note.—Gender comes from the Latin *genus*, meaning birth, or kind by birth.

Nouns have three genders, MASCULINE, FEMININE, and NEUTER.

The Masculine denotes objects of THE MALE SEX ; as, *boy, man*.

The Feminine denotes objects of THE FEMALE SEX ; as, *girl, woman*.

The Neuter denotes objects WITHOUT SEX ; as, *book, river*.

Some object to our speaking of three genders, as though it implied three sexes. The objection arises from confounding gender with sex. Gender is not sex, but a grammatical distinction growing out of sex. In reference to sex, objects are divided into two classes, those with sex, and those without sex. Objects with sex are subdivided into such as are male and such as are female. This gives us two sexes, male and female, but three genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter.

The English is, perhaps, the most philosophical of all languages in regard to gender. In other languages, things without life are generally masculine, feminine, or neuter, according to their terminations, and without reference to sex or the absence of it. But in English, gender is strictly a distinction of sex, things without sex being invariably neuter. In consequence of this peculiarity, the language is capable of a rhetorical beauty, which is unknown in other languages. Personification (which means considering inanimate objects as persons endowed with life) is, in its ordinary form, one of the boldest figures of rhetoric, and can be used with propriety only in the highest flights of poetry and oratory. There is, however, a lower kind of personification which can be used in English, and frequently with great beauty. When, for instance, it is desirable to raise the style slightly above the tenor of prose composition, it can often be done with the greatest ease, simply by applying "he" and "she" to neuter nouns. This indirect kind of personification at once enlivens the style, without rendering it passionate or overwrought. In this way we say of the earth, "*she* is fruitful," of the sun, "*he* has risen in *his* strength," of time, "*he* flies on rapid wings," etc.

When this animated kind of phraseology is used, it is impossible to give any uniform rule for determining what nouns should be considered as masculine and what feminine. In general, however, in such cases, nouns become masculine which indicate superior strength, energy, or firmness. Those on the contrary are feminine which indicate delicacy, weakness, or timidity, or which are of a passive rather than an active nature. Examples of those which are considered masculine are, sun, time, death, etc. Examples of feminines are, moon, earth, church, nature, etc.

In accordance with this, animals are sometimes regarded as masculine or

feminine, not from their sex, but from the masculine or feminine qualities of the tribe to which they belong. Thus we say: "The lion meets *his* foe boldly." "The hare leaps from *her* covert."

Modes of Distinguishing Sex.

There are three ways of distinguishing sex: 1. by the use of different words, as *bachelor*, *maid*; 2. by difference of termination, as *abbot*, *abbess*; 3. by prefixing or affixing another word, as *he-goat*, *she-goat*; *landlord*, *landlady*.

1. By the use of different words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid	King	queen
Beau	belle	Lad	lass
Boar	sow	Lord	lady
Boy	girl	Male	female
Brother	sister	Man	woman
Buck	doe	Master	miss
Bull	} cow	Mister	Mistress
Bullock		or Mr.	Mrs.
Ox		Milter	spawner
Steer	heifer	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	mamma
Colt	filly	Ram	ewe
Dog	bitch	Singer	songstress
Drake	duck	Sir	} madam
Earl	countess	Sire (<i>the king</i>)	
Father	mother	Sire, <i>a horse</i>	dam
Friar	} nun	Sloven	slattern
Monk		Son	daughter
Gander	goose	Stag	hind
Hart	roe	Swain	nymph
Horse	mare	Uncle	aunt
Husband	wife	Wizard	witch.

2. By difference of termination.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Arbiter	arbitress
Actor	actress	Author	authoress
Adulterer	adulteress	Baron	baroness
Ambassador	ambadress	Benefactor	benefactress

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Caterer	cateress	Poet	poetess
Chanter	chantress	Priest	priestess
Conductor	conductress	Prince	princess
Count	countess	Prior	prioress
Dauphin	dauphiness	Prophet	prophetess
Deacon	deaconess	Protector	protectress
Director	directress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Duke	duchess	Songster	songstress
Editor	editress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Elector	electress	Tailor	tailoress
Emperor	empress	Tiger	tigress
Enchanter	enchantress	Traitor	traitress
Founder	foundress	Tutor	tutoress
Giant	giantess	Tyrant	tyranness
God	goddess	Viscount	viscountess
Governor	governess	Votary	votaress.
Heir	heiress	—	—
Host	hostess	Administrator	administratrix
Hunter	huntress	Executor	executrix
Instructor	instructress	Heritor	heritrix
Jew	Jewess	Testator	testatrix
Lion	lioness	Hero	heroine
Marquis	marchioness	Landgrave	landgravine
Mayor	mayoress	Bridegroom	bride
Monitor	monitress	Widower	widow
Negro	negress	Czar	czarina
Patron	patroness	Don	donna
Peer	peeress	Sultan	sultana.

3. By prefixing or affixing another word.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Landlord	landlady	Man-servant	maid-servant
Gentleman	gentlewoman	Male-child	female-child
Archduke	archduchess	Peacock	peahen
Schoolmaster	schoolmistress	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-goat	she-goat	Grandfather	grandmother.

Note 1.—Some nouns denote objects which may be either male or female; as, *bird*, *parent*. These are said to be of the Common gender.

Note 2.—Many masculines have no corresponding feminines; as, *baker, brewer*, etc. A few feminines have no corresponding masculines; as, *laundress, brunette, virago*, etc.

Note 3.—In some of the words which have both masculine and feminine terminations, the masculine is ordinarily used to denote both sexes, wherever the office or profession is the idea chiefly intended. When, however, it is the intention of the sentence to designate the sex of the individual spoken of, the change of termination is to be observed. Thus, “the *poets* of the age” would be correct when speaking of poets of both sexes; but the “best *poetess* of the age” would be used when speaking of female writers only.

Note 4.—In speaking of small animals, or of those whose sex is not known, or not regarded, they are often considered as without sex: thus, we say of a *cat* “it is treacherous,” of an *infant* “it is beautiful,” of a *deer* “it was killed.”

Note 5.—A Collective noun is neuter when it refers, not to the objects separately, but to the collection as one whole. Thus: The class is large; *it* must be divided.

II. NUMBER.

Number is the distinction of nouns in regard to **UNITY** and **PLURALITY**.

Nouns have two numbers; the **SINGULAR** and the **PLURAL**.

The **Singular** denotes **ONE**, the **Plural** **MORE THAN ONE**.

Modes of forming the Plural.

1. Plural in *s*.

Nouns generally are made Plural by adding *s* to the Singular; as, *book, books*.

2. Plural in *es*.

Nouns ending in *ch soft, s, sh, x*, and *z*, are made Plural by adding *es*; as, *church, churches*; *miss, misses*; *lash, lashes*; *box, boxes*; *topaz, topazes*.

Note.—Nouns ending in *o* differ as to the mode of forming the

plural. Some form the plural by adding *es*. Among these are *calico*, *cargo*, *hero*, *motto*, *mulatto*, *negro*, *potato*, *tomato*, *tornado*, *volcano*, etc. Others form the plural by adding simply *s*. Among these are *armadillo*, *cameo*, *canto*, *cento*, *duodecimo*, *folio*, *halo*, *junto*, *memento*, *octavo*, *piano*, *portico*, *proviso*, *quarto*, *salvo*, *sirocco*, *solo*, *trio*, *tyro*, *virtuoso*, *zero*, etc.

Exercise. — Spell the plural of *negro*, *lynx*, *quiz*, *radish*, *patriarch*, *peach*, *mass*, *rhombus*, *trio*, *motto*, *halo*.

3. Plural in *ves*.

Nouns ending in single *f*, or in *fe*, are made Plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *life*, *lives*.

Note 1. — The following form the plural according to the general rule, viz.: *Brief*, *chief*, *dwarf*, *fife*, *grief*, *gulf*, *hoof*, *handkerchief*, *kerchief*, *mischiefs*, *proof*, *reproof*, *roof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *strife*, *surf*, *turf*.

Note 2. — Nouns in double *f* follow the general rule; as, *muff*, *muffs*. Exc. *Staff*, a stick, has *staves* in the plural; *staff*, a body of officers, has *staffs*. The compounds of *staff* all have *staffs* in the plural; as, *flagstaffs*, *tipstaffs*, *distaffs*, etc.

Exercise. — Spell the plural of *wharf*, *half*, *cuff*, *leaf*, *beef*, *calf*, *thief*, *wife*.

4. Plural in *ies*.

Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant are made Plural by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *lady*, *ladies*. J

Note. — Nouns ending in *y* after a vowel do not change *y* into *ies*, but form the plural by the general rule; as, *day*, *days*.

Exercise. — Spell the plural of the following: *Ray*, *toy*, *chimney*, *tray*, *artery*, *Monday*, *February*, *buoy*, *boy*, *attorney*, *valley*, *money*.

5. Plural in *'s*.

Letters, figures, and other characters, used as nouns, are made Plural by adding the apostrophe and *s*; as, "Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*;" "the *+*'s should be transposed;" "Three *6's* = two *9's*."

Plural of Proper Nouns.

Proper nouns, and other parts of speech used as nouns, are made Plural in the same manner as Common nouns of like endings; as, the *Pompeys* and *Ciceros* of the age; the *ins* and *outs* of office.

In words of this kind, ending in *y* after a consonant, the usage is not uniform. Some simply add *s*; as, The *Marys* and *Marthas*; the *whys* and *wherefores*. Some change the *y* into *ies*; as, The two *Sicilies*, the *Alleghanies*, *five-twenties*.

Nouns Irregular in the Plural.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Ox	oxen	Louse	lice.
Foot	feet		

Plurals with Different Significations.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Regular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Irregular.</i>
Brother	brothers (<i>of same family</i>)		brethren (<i>of same society</i>)
Die	dies (<i>for coining</i>)		dice (<i>for gaming</i>)
Genius	geniuses (<i>men of genius</i>)		genii (<i>spirits</i>)
Index	indexes (<i>tables of reference</i>)		indices (<i>signs in algebra</i>)
Penny	pennies	} <i>distinct objects</i>	pence
Pea	peas		pease } <i>the denomination</i>
Cow	cows		kine } <i>the kind of animal.</i>

The compounds of *man* form the plural in the same manner as the simple word; as, *alderman*, *aldermen*.

Care should be taken, however, not to confound compounds of the word *man* with words that accidentally end in those three letters. Thus *statesman* is really compounded of two words, *states* and *man*; but, *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *German*, are simple words, like *talisman*, *ottoman* (a kind of

seat), and form the plural regularly, thus : *Turcomans, Mussulmans, Germans, talismans, ottomans.*

Plural of Compounds.

Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective connected by a hyphen take the sign of the plural upon the noun only ; as, *court-martial, courts-martial.*

Compounds consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen, are sometimes composed of two nouns, one of which is used in the sense of an adjective, as *man-trap*, in which the word *man* is really an adjective ; or of a noun and some combination of words having the force of an adjective, as *father-in-law*, in which the combination *in-law* has the force of an adjective, as much so as the word *legal*. In all these compounds, the sign of the plural is added to that part of the compound which really constitutes the noun, as, *man-traps, fathers-in-law.*

In forming the *possessive* of such compounds, the rule is different, the sign of the possessive being uniformly added to the end of the compound expression : thus, *father-in-law*, pl. *fathers-in-law*, poss. *father-in-law's.*

The compounds of *full* form the plural regularly ; as, *mouthful, mouthfuls ; spoonful, spoonfuls ; bucketful, bucketfuls.*

Exercise.—Form the plural of the following : *Man-of-war, man-eater, drum-major, major-general, sergeant-at-arms, hen-coop, pin-cushion.*

Plural of Foreign Words.

Words adopted without change from foreign languages generally retain their original plurals.

These words are now very numerous, particularly in works on science and the arts, and not a few are to be found in works of every description. Only a few of the most common can be given here. For the others, the learner should consult a dictionary.

Formula	formulæ	Erratum	errata
Nebula	nebulæ	Gymnasium	gymnasia
Addendum	addenda	Stratum	strata
Arcanum	arcana	Automaton	automata
Datum	data	Criterion	criteria
Desideratum	desiderata	Phenomenon	phenomena
Effluvium	effluvia	Alumnus	alumni

Alumna	alumnæ	Axis	axes
Focus	foci	Basis	bases
Fungus	fungi	Crisis	crises
Radius	radii	Ellipsis	ellipses
Sarcophagus	sarcophagi	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Stimulus	stimuli	Oasis	oases
Terminus	termini	Parenthesis	parentheses
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Thesis	theses
Analysis	analyses	Appendix	appendices
Antithesis	antitheses	Vertex	vertices.

Some foreign words are so far domesticated as to have an English plural as well as a foreign one. Among these are the following :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>
Cherub	cherubim	cherubs
Seraph	seraphim	seraphs
Memorandum	memoranda	memorandums
Medium	media	mediums
Bandit	banditti	bandits
Stamen	stamina	stamens.

General Remarks on Number.

1. Some nouns are for the most part not used in the plural. Among these are the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and of things that are either weighed or measured ; as, *gold, goodness, idleness, wisdom, flour, milk.*

2. Some nouns are used only in the plural. Among these are *annals, antipodes, archives, assets, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, goods, nuptials, measles, oats, thanks, tidings, victuals, wages* ; also the names of things consisting of two parts, as, *bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, tweezers, trousers, etc.*

3. Some nouns are alike in both numbers. Among these are *deer, sheep, trout, salmon, etc.* : also several foreign words, as *apparatus, series, species, etc.* The singular of such words may generally be distinguished by the use of the indefinite article *a* or *an* ; as, *a series, a deer, a trout, an apparatus, etc.*

4. Many nouns are sometimes alike in both numbers, and at

other times have a regular form for the plural. Among these are *head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score*, etc. Thus we say "He bought *twenty dozen* of them," and "He bought them in *dozens*."

5. Some nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in meaning. Among them are *amends, means, news, riches*, etc.; also the names of certain sciences, as *conics, optics, ethics, mathematics*, etc.

6. *Means* and *amends* are singular when they refer to only one object, plural when they refer to more than one. The singular *mean* is also used to signify strictly the middle between two extremes. *News* is rarely found with a plural signification. *Riches* has both a singular and a plural signification. *Alms* is strictly singular.

The *s* at the end of the last two words is not the *s* of the plural formation, but is a part of the original word. Thus, *riches* is derived from the French *richesse*, and according to its derivation should properly be singular. But usage has given it both a singular and a plural meaning, as stated above. *Alms*, however, from *almesse*, retains its original meaning, and is always singular.

III. PERSON.

Person is the distinction of nouns or pronouns in their relation to the speaker.

Nouns have three persons, FIRST, SECOND, and THIRD.

The First person is THE SPEAKER, The Second is THE ONE SPOKEN TO, the Third is THE ONE SPOKEN OF.

Note.—Instances of the use of nouns in the First Person are not common, and as no change in the form of the word takes place in consequence of the person, some grammarians omit it altogether in speaking of nouns.

The question whether nouns are really ever used in the first person is not a point perhaps of much practical importance. The following sentences, however, seem to be examples of nouns in the first person:—"The Elder unto the elect lady and her children, whom *I* love," etc. — 2 John 1. "The Elder unto the well-beloved Gaius, whom *I* love," etc. — 3 John 1. "Paul, a servant, etc., to Titus, *mine* own son," etc. In these examples,

the pronouns *I* and *mine* indicate the person of Elder and Paul, just as clearly, and by just the same kind of evidence, that the pronoun *her* indicates the gender of the word lady.

Exercises. — In the following sentences, tell which are nouns; and say of each whether it is proper or common; and what is its gender, number, and person.

I John saw the holy city, new Jerusalem. Rouse, ye Romans, rouse, ye slaves. I heard a voice, saying unto me, Arise, Peter. We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

IV. CASE.

Case distinguishes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

The word Case is from the Latin *casus*, a falling. It has no reference to the meaning of the word, as now used in Grammar, but to the way in which the cases were exhibited in the old Latin Grammars, the Nominative being put at the top of a series, and the other cases being represented as falling away from it and below it.

Nouns have three cases, **NOMINATIVE**, **POSSESSIVE**, and **OBJECTIVE**.

Note. — The relation indicated by the case of a noun includes three ideas, viz.: those of *subject*, *object*, and *ownership*. A noun may be to a verb in the relation of its *subject*, or that of which the assertion is made, and then it is in the nominative case; or it may be to a verb or a preposition in the relation of its *object*, or that on which some action or relation terminates, and then it is in the objective case; or it may have to some other noun the relation of *ownership* or *possession*, and then it is in the possessive case. According to this view of the subject,

The Nominative Case is that in which a noun is **THE SUBJECT OF A VERB**.

The Possessive Case is that which DENOTES OWNERSHIP OR POSSESSION.

The Objective Case is that in which THE NOUN IS THE OBJECT OF SOME VERB OR PREPOSITION.

The Nominative and Objective cases are alike in form.

Note. — Pronouns have cases, in the same manner as nouns.

How to find the Nominative. — The subject of the verb may be found by putting "who" or "what" before the verb and asking the question. Example: "A man bought a hat." Who bought? Ans. Man. Therefore, "man" is the subject of the verb "bought," and is in the nominative case.

How to find the Objective. — The object of a verb or of a preposition may be found by putting "whom" or "what" after the verb or the preposition and asking the question. Examples: "William hurt his sister." Hurt whom? Ans. Sister. Therefore, "sister" is the object of the verb "hurt." "William went into the street." Into what? Ans. Street. Therefore, "street" is the object of the preposition "into."

Exercises. — Find the subject of each verb in the following sentences; also, the object of each verb and preposition:

The teacher of the second division assigned to the first section a lesson in geography.

A lesson in geography was assigned to the whole division.

Idleness in youth brings misery in old age.

Lying leads to other bad habits.

Formation of the Possessive.

The Possessive Singular is formed from the nominative singular, by adding an *apostrophe* and *s*.

The Possessive Plural is formed from the nominative plural, by adding an *apostrophe* only when the plural ends in *s*, and by adding both the *apostrophe* and *s* when the plural does not end in *s*.

A few words here may not be out of place, in regard to the true origin of the English Possessive.

In the most ancient form of the language, there were three distinct

declensions, each with a different form for the Possessive, or Genitive. The Genitive ending of the First declension was *es*, that of the Second *an*, that of the Third *e* (1. *Staef*, *staefes*, a letter; 2. *Witega*, *witegan*, a wise man; 3. *Wyln*, *wylne*, a maid-servant). In the changes which took place after the Norman conquest, all the inflectional forms of nouns gave way except some remains of the old Plural formation, and the Genitive or Possessive of the old First declension. This, written sometimes *es*, and sometimes *is*, was in universal use in the time of Chaucer (*mannes wit*, *cherubinnes face*, *Chaucer*; *Goddiss grace*, *Cristis vicar*, *Wycliffe*), and remained with little change for a full century after Chaucer, as late in fact as A. D. 1500. In Spenser, and in writers for nearly a century after him, say from A. D. 1600 to nearly A. D. 1700, we find three forms in concurrent use; namely, (1) *s* simply, the *e* being dropped (*fathers kingdom*, *mothers blood*); (2) our present form, *'s*, the apostrophe being used in recognition of the lost *e*; (3) *his* (*Pegasus his kind*, *Spenser*; *Marot his song*, *Fletcher's Purple Island*), the form originating apparently in a mistaken notion that the *'s* was a corruption of *his*.

General Remarks on the Possessive.

1. There was at one time a prevalent notion, which indeed to some extent still prevails, that when the nominative ends in *s* the possessive is found by adding the apostrophe only. This is true in the plural, but not in the singular. In the possessive singular, the *s* is added, though the nominative does end in *s*. The best writers at the present day rarely, if ever, omit this additional *s*. Thus, *Adams's speeches*, *Dickens's works*, *James's books*.

When, by carrying out this rule, too great a combination of hissing sounds is produced, the difficulty may be avoided by using the alternative form. Thus: *The sister of Moses*, instead of *Moses's sister*; for the sake of conscience, instead of *for conscience's sake*. The only exception to this rule that seems thoroughly established is "*for Jesus' sake*." This probably had its origin in the fact that the name itself, in the old works of devotion, was *Jesu*, giving regularly *Jesu's sake*, which sounds exactly like our *Jesus' sake*.

2. When the nominative ends in a sound with which the apostrophic *s* cannot combine, the word is pronounced as if *es* were added. Thus, *church's* is pronounced exactly like *churches*. In writing these forms, care should be taken not to be misled by the sound.

3. In like manner, in nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, care should be taken not to confound the possessive singular and the nominative plural, which are pronounced alike, though written differently; as, *lady*, pos. s. *lady's*, nom. p. *ladies*.

4. The import of the possessive may generally be expressed by the preposition *of*; thus, "*man's* wisdom" means "the wisdom *of man*." These two forms of expression, however, do not always mean the same. Thus, "the king's picture" may mean a picture *belonging* to the king; but "a picture of the king" necessarily means a *portrait* of him.

5. The apostrophe and *s* do not always indicate the possessive case. They are sometimes employed to form the plural of mere letters or characters used as nouns; as four 3's, ten 6's, etc.; also to form the singular of verbs of a similar character; as, "He *pro's* and *con's*, and weighs the matter o'er."

Declension of Nouns.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Friend	friend's	friend	friends	friends'	friends
Man	man's	man	men	men's	men
Church	church's	church	churches	churches'	churches
Lady	lady's	lady	ladies	ladies'	ladies
Jones	Jones's	Jones	Joneses	Joneses'	Joneses.

Exercises in Declension.—Decline *fox, farmer, Benjamin, James, city, attorney, lass, miss.*

Form the possessive case singular of *Agnes, Robert Morris, Roger Williams, Martin Van Buren, John Quincy Adams, maid-of-all-work.*

Form the possessive case, singular and plural, of *baby, colony, landlady, dray, calf, mulatto, ox, ox-cart.*

Correct the following expressions: *Lazarus' son; The 9s were cast out; There are two ks in kick; James' lesson is hard.*



Parsing Exercises.—Parse John in the sentence, "John went home."

Model.—"John" (1.) is a noun, it is the name of a person; (2.) a proper noun, it is a name given to only one of a class; (3.) of the masculine gender, it denotes a male; (4.) in the singular number, it denotes but one; (5.) in the third person, it is spoken of; (6.) in the nominative case, it is the subject of the verb "went."

Note. — The figures inserted in this model are not to be recited. They are put in to show the order in which the several properties of the word are to be given. These six items must be given, and given in this order, in parsing every noun. The scholar in learning, and the teacher in hearing the recitation, may, by following the order of the figures, know that nothing is omitted.

Exercise. — Parse all the Nouns and Articles in the following sentences: In a great emergency, Grace Darling helped her father to row a boat during a dreadful storm, and by this means, in the hands of Providence, she prevented sorrow in many mothers' hearts.



III. ADJECTIVES.

An Adjective is a word used to qualify a Noun or a Pronoun; as, *a good man, they are wise.*

To "qualify" means here to limit the meaning of a thing, or to express some of its qualities. An adjective generally denotes some quality belonging to an object. It describes the object. It serves to show the difference between things having the same name, as *good boy, bad boy, sweet apple, sour apple, etc.*

Note 1. — Adjective takes its name from the Latin *adjectus*, added to, because it is a word added to a noun.

Note 2. — Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express some quality of another noun; as, *gold ring, sea water.*

Note 3. — Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and admit of number and case; as, our *superiors*, his *bettors*, by *fifties*, for *twenty's sake*, etc.

Note 4. — Adjectives preceded by the definite article are often used as nouns; as, "*The little that was known of him.*" When the expression refers to persons, the adjective is always considered plural; as, "*the good*," meaning good men.

Some grammarians have objected to making adjectives a separate part of speech, and have classed them under the head of nouns, because they often, if not always, denote some substance, quality, or property, just as

truly as nouns do. Thus, "brazen tube" means "a tube made of brass." The adjective *brazen* denotes the same substance that the noun *brass* does. In like manner, *waxen* implies the substance *wax*, *golden* implies the substance *gold*, *hard* the quality *hardness*. The objection is founded in a mistaken view of the true nature of the noun. That which distinguishes the noun from the other parts of speech is not that it expresses an idea of some substance, quality, or thing, and that the others do not. On the contrary, every part of speech, every word in fact, necessarily expresses this idea, in some form. Thus, "above" and "below" convey the idea of some circumstance, quality, or thing, just as much as do the words "top" and "bottom." In the words *person*, *personal*, *personally*, *personify*; *thought*, *thoughtful*, *thoughtfully*, *thinks*, etc., we have the same idea of some substance or thing, and this idea running through a whole series of words, each of which is a different part of speech. The noun, then, is distinguished from the other parts of speech, not from its expressing the idea of some substance, quality, or thing, but from its being the NAME of that idea. If we speak or think of the name of that idea, we use a noun. If we connect that idea with any noun as one of its qualities, accidents, or attributes, but without affirmation, it is an adjective.

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives which express number are called **Numerals**.

Numeral Adjectives are of three kinds, **CARDINAL**, **ORDINAL**, and **MULTIPLICATIVE**.

The **Cardinal Adjectives** denote how many; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc.

The **Ordinal Adjectives** denote in what order; as, *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, etc.

The **Multiplicatives** denote how many fold; as, *single*, *double*, *triple*, etc.

There are also various compound adjectives into which the numerals enter; as, one-leaved, two-fold, etc.

II. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are varied by **COMPARISON**.

The Degrees of Comparison are three, **POSITIVE**, **COMPARATIVE**, and **SUPERLATIVE**.

The **Positive** expresses the quality ; as, *small, wise*.

The **Comparative** expresses the quality in a higher or lower degree ; as, *smaller, wiser*.

The **Superlative** expresses the quality in the highest or lowest degree ; as, *smallest, wisest*.

Adjectives may express qualities in many different degrees besides the three mentioned. Thus, a thing may be not only black, blacker, blackest, but blackish, intensely black, etc. In other words, the degrees of comparison may be multiplied to almost any extent. Three of these, however, are so much more common than the rest, that the name is restricted to them.

Regular Comparison.

The **Comparative** is formed by adding *er*, and the **Superlative** by adding *est*, to the **Positive** ; as, *great, greater, greatest*.

Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by prefixing to the **Positive** the words *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *numerous ; more numerous, most numerous ; less numerous, least numerous*.

Note 1.—*More* and *most*, *less* and *least* may, in these cases, be parsed separately as adverbs, qualifying the adjective ; or the adverb and the adjective may be taken together as the comparative or superlative form of the adjective.

Note 2.—Some adjectives form the **Superlative** by adding *most* to the end of the word ; as, *upper, uppermost*.

Dissyllables ending in *y* or *e* are generally compared by adding *er* and *est* ; as, *happy, happier, happiest ; able, abler, ablest*.

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Far	{ farther further	{ farthest furthest.

Note.— *Bad* has also *evil* and *ill* in the positive; and *much* has also *many*. *Elder* and *eldest* come regularly from *eld* (now obsolete).

Superlatives with Different Meanings.

Near	nearer	nearest	(<i>in place</i>)	next	} <i>in order.</i>
Late	later	latest	(<i>in time</i>)	last	
Fore	former	foremost	(<i>in place</i>)	first	

Note 1.— *Prior, superior, ulterior, exterior, inferior, etc.*, involve the idea of comparison, like the words *previous, preferable*, and many others, but are not considered as comparatives, and are not followed by *than*, as English comparatives usually are.

Note 2.— The termination *ish* makes what is sometimes called a subpositive; as, *bluish, blackish, etc.*

Some of the ideas expressed by adjectives are fixed and absolute. That is, they refer to things not capable of increase or diminution. Among these may be reckoned those which denote some definite number, shape, or position; as, *two, three, second, third, circular, triangular, perpendicular, etc.*; also those which express the substance of which any thing is made, as, *golden, flaxen, etc.*; also many such words as *whole, universal, supreme*. All such adjectives are incapable of being compared.

Exercises in Comparison.— Compare *unlucky, lucky, benevolent, shady, sad, active, abusive, noisy, lazy, gay, fine, irregular, harmonious, juicy, ill-natured, thoughtless*.

Give the superlative of *hind, inner, outer, top*.



Parsing Exercises.— Parse “wise” in the sentence, “Solomon was a wise king.”

Model.— “Wise (1.) is an adjective, it is used to qualify the noun ‘king;’ (2.) it is in the positive degree, compared ‘wise, wiser, wisest.’”

Parse all the Nouns, Articles, and Adjectives in the following sentences:

The exterior of the stone wall was perpendicular. It had a thickness of two feet at the top, and was still thicker at the bottom.

We should not consider our inferiors contemptible, for though they may be our inferiors in rank, they are perhaps our superiors in virtue.

The wicked often put off repentance to the eleventh hour.

Rain water is less pleasant to the taste than river or spring water is. Though the former may contain less foreign matter, the latter is more acceptable to the thirsty.



IV. PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The man is happy, because *he* is benevolent."

Pronouns are divided into three classes; PERSONAL, RELATIVE, and ADJECTIVE.

Note.—Pronoun takes its name from the Latin *pro*, for, and *nomen*, a name.

There is, I believe, some misapprehension in regard to the precise sense in which a pronoun stands instead of a noun. Some writers seem to entertain the opinion that a noun and its pronoun are strictly interchangeable words, and that not only is the latter a substitute for the former, but that the former may, in every case, be restored to its supposed original place in the sentence. This mistake originated probably from confining the attention to examples taken from the third person, where the noun may often, though very inelegantly, take the place of the pronoun which represents it. Thus, instead of "The man is happy because *he* is benevolent," we may say, "The man is happy, because *the man* is benevolent." But, when Nathan says to David, "*Thou* art the man," David cannot be substituted for *thou* without changing the sense. To understand precisely in what sense a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it should be recollected that a noun has, in the first place, a meaning of its own, independently of its connection with the other words in the sentence. Thus, the word "book," as soon as uttered, conveys to the mind a certain idea. In addition to this idea, thus contained in the word itself, a noun is capable of conveying to the mind, at the same time, certain other ideas in consequence of its offices, as a *possessor*, as the *subject* or *object* of the verb, as indicating some *relation to the speaker*, etc. Now, the pronoun discharges this latter class of duties in place of the noun, and often where the noun itself could not be used for the purpose. The pronoun is the subject of the verb, the object of the verb, indicates

the speaker, the person spoken to, the person spoken of, distinguishes sex, etc., just as the noun would do in its place. At the same time, the noun cannot always, nor even often, replace the pronoun which refers to it.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The Personal Pronouns are five; *I, thou, he, she, it*; with their plurals, *we, you, they*.

They are called Personal Pronouns because they denote person by themselves, and without reference to any other word.

Personal Pronouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

The Personal Pronouns express the idea of Person by themselves, and independently of their connection with the other words in a sentence. Thus, *I, thou, he*, convey the idea of person at once, as soon as uttered. This idea, so far as it is expressed by the relative pronouns, and by nouns, is conveyed, not by anything in the meaning of the words themselves, but by means of their connection with other words. Thus, *who*, by itself, conveys no intimation of person; but it becomes personal as soon as it is connected with an antecedent, as *he who, thou who, man who*. Some of the adjective pronouns (the Demonstrative) express indeed the idea of person by their own proper meaning, in the same manner as the personal pronoun, but they also express an additional and more important idea, which sufficiently distinguishes them from the former class. Their demonstrative character is the predominating one, and gives them their name. In like manner the Relative pronouns are distinguished from the other classes. Every pronoun, indeed, so far as it is a pronoun at all, necessarily relates to something. But this relation is not the leading and prominent idea in any except the Relative pronouns. In each class, it is the leading and prominent idea which gives name to the class, and not any property which it possesses exclusive of the rest. Thus, the leading idea in the Personal pronouns is the distinction of person; in the Relative pronouns, the relation to the antecedent; in the Adjective pronouns, the dependence of the word upon some noun in the manner of an adjective.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON — Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>I</i>	Nom.	<i>we</i>
Poss.	<i>my, or mine</i>	Poss.	<i>our, or ours</i>
Obj.	<i>me</i>	Obj.	<i>us.</i>

SECOND PERSON — Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>thou</i>	Nom.	<i>you</i>
Poss.	<i>thy, or thine</i>	Poss.	<i>your, or yours</i>
Obj.	<i>thee</i>	Obj.	<i>you.</i>

THIRD PERSON — Masculine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>he</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>his</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>him</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON — Feminine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>she</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>her, or hers</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>her</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON — Neuter.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>it</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>its</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>it</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

The fact that in most languages no separate forms have been invented for the masculine and feminine of the First and Second Persons may be accounted for perhaps by inquiring into the reason why gender itself was invented. Gender seems to be a contrivance to assist in distinguishing more clearly the person or thing that is the subject of discourse. Now in the first and second persons, this is unnecessary. The speaker, and the one spoken to, are present to the view, and by that very fact need nothing else to distinguish them. But the third person, that is, the thing spoken of, is or may be absent, and needs the distinction of gender to designate it more clearly.

Remarks on the Personal Pronouns.

1. In the first person, the plural *we* is often used for the singular *I*, by Editors, Reviewers, Governors, etc.

2. In the second person, the plural is generally used for the singular. Thus, *you* is used for *thou*, *your* or *yours* for *thy* or *thine*, and *you* for *thee*. In prayers to God, however, and on other solemn occasions, we use the singular form, *thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *thee*.

3. Where a plural pronoun is thus used, while only one person is meant, the verb as well as the pronoun must be plural. Thus: *we are*, not *we is*; *you were*, not *you was*.

4. The second person plural had originally *ye* in the nominative and *you* in the objective. The form *ye*, however, has now become obsolete, and *you* is used both for the nominative and the objective.

5. The Possessives should never be written with an apostrophe, *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*, but always thus: *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.

6. The adjective *own* is frequently found connected with the possessive case of the personal pronoun, in order to make the possessive emphatic; thus, "It is your *own* fault."

Compound Personal Pronouns.

Myself, thyself, himself, herself, and itself, with their plurals, *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, are called Compound Personal Pronouns.

Note. — In the Compound Personal Pronouns, the nominative and objective cases are alike, and the possessive is wanting. No formal declension of them, therefore, is needed.

These Compound Personal Pronouns, it is to be noticed, are formed by adding *self* in the Singular and *selves* in the Plural to the simple pronoun. This addition is made, in the first and second persons, to the *Possessive* case of the pronoun; in the third person, the addition is made to the *Objective*.



Parsing Exercises. — Parse "he," in the sentence, "When John was at school, *he* wrote a letter to his father."

Model. — "He" is (1.) a personal pronoun, (2.) masculine gender, (3.) singular number, (4.) third person, (5.) nominative case, subject of the verb "wrote."

Parse all the Personal Pronouns in the following examples:

The wind, when it blows upon my body, making it shiver, tells me that I am mortal, though some persons would only complain that they were obliged to bear its buffetings.

The Queen of Sheba retired from Solomon's presence, convinced that his wisdom was greater than any account that had been given to her of it, would have led her to infer.

We, the people, watch with jealousy those who are our rulers, that they may not infringe upon our rights, and that the liberties

which we possess may be secured to our children when they succeed us.

Parse all the Articles, Nouns, and Adjectives in the foregoing sentences.

II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The Relative Pronouns are, *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

These are called Relative Pronouns because they relate to some word going before, called the antecedent; as, "*The boy who* wishes to be learned must be studious."

Every pronoun, indeed, necessarily relates to the word which it represents. But this relation is not the leading and prominent idea in any except the Relative pronouns. (See remarks under Personal Pronouns, p. 45.)

Who is used in speaking of persons; as, "The gentleman *who* called," "The lady *who* called."

Which is used ordinarily in speaking of inferior animals, or of things without life; as, "The horse *which* was bought," "The pencil *which* was given."

Which is often used as an adjective pronoun; as, "*Which* things are an allegory."

What, as a relative, takes the place of *which* whenever the antecedent is omitted.

"This is [the thing] *which* I wanted." If we omit the antecedent, the *which* must be changed to *what*. "This is [] *what* I wanted." No reason can be given for this peculiarity, except that custom has made it so. It is a law of the language.

We have a usage somewhat like this in some of the possessive pronouns. "This is *my* [book]." If we leave out the noun, the pronoun must be changed. "This is *mine* []." The pronouns which follow this rule are six, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*. They uniformly take the place of the ordinary form, whenever the noun expressing the thing possessed is omitted, just as *what* takes the place of *which* whenever the antecedent is omitted.

The word left out in these cases is usually something so easily supplied, that it seems to exist in the pronoun itself, whereas it really exists only in our own thoughts. *What* does not of itself mean "*the thing which*," any more than *mine* of itself means "*my book*." In both instances, the noun is at once suggested to the mind, but it is not wrapped up in some mysterious manner in the pronoun.

We have in English other instances which still further strengthen this view of the case.

"[He] *who* steals my purse steals trash." Here *who* does not stand for "*he who*;" the antecedent is supplied by the mind.

"We speak *that* [which] we do know." *John* 3: 10. "I am *that* [which] I am." *Ex.* 3: 14. "Gather the sequel by *that* [which] went before." — *Shakespeare*. Here we do not say that *that* is equivalent to "*that which*." The "*which*" is suggested by the mind, not wrapped up in the "*that*."

What always refers to things without life, and therefore is always neuter. It may be either singular or plural. "*What* [the thing which] appears to be a fault is only a virtue in disguise." "*What* [the things which] appear to be faults are only virtues in disguise."

What is often used as an adjective pronoun; as, "We lost *what* books we had."

Here *lost* has for its object some words understood, which the mind readily suggests. But if we insert them, the other part of the construction is immediately changed. "We lost [those books] *which* [] we had." *What books* is allowable only when the corresponding antecedent words are left out.

That, as a relative, takes the place of either *who* or *which*.

That is used in speaking either of persons or of things; as, "The best *boy that* lives," "The same *book that* was lost," and it is used in both numbers; as, "The best *boys that* live," "The same *books that* were lost."

The word *that* is used in three senses. 1. Sometimes it has the meaning of *who* or *which*; as, "The best boy *that* lives;" and then it is a Relative Pronoun. 2. Sometimes it points out a noun; as, *that* boy; and then it is an Adjective Pronoun. 3. Sometimes it shows the dependence of one verb upon another; as, He wished *that* he had done it; and then it is a Conjunction.

What and *that* are indeclinable.

Who and *which* are alike in both numbers, and are thus declined :

<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>			<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	
Nom.	<i>who</i>		Nom.	<i>which</i>
Poss.	<i>whose</i>		Poss.	<i>whose</i>
Obj.	<i>whom.</i>		Obj.	<i>which.</i>

Compound Relatives.

The Compound Relatives are six, namely, *whoever*, *who-soever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

They are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to the relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

These Compounds are sometimes separated by an intervening noun; as, "Into *whose* house *soever* ye enter."

Whosoever is regularly declined like *who*; thus,

<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	
Nom.	<i>whosoever</i>
Poss.	<i>whosoesoever</i>
Obj.	<i>whomsoever.</i>

The other Compound Relatives are indeclinable.

Like the relative *what*, the Compound Relatives are for the most part used when the related noun or pronoun is omitted; as, " *Whosoever* committeth sin [he] is the servant of sin," " *Whatever* is evil [it] should be avoided."

Sometimes, however, for greater emphasis, especially in ancient writings, the related noun or pronoun is expressed; as, "Blessed is *he*, *whosoever* shall not be offended in me," " *Whosoever* will, let *him* take of the water of life."

Whichever, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* are also used as adjective pronouns; as, " *Whichever* side you choose, you are sure to win."

Whether (meaning which one of the two) is now obsolete, *which* being used in its place. *Whether* (a Conjunction) is still in use.

Whoso, formerly used for *whoever*, or *whosoever*, is also now obsolete.

Interrogatives and Responsives.

In *asking* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Interrogatives*.

In *answering* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Responsives*.

As Interrogatives, *who*, *which*, and *what* have no *antecedent*, but relate to a word *subsequent*, contained in the answer. Thus, "*Who* did it? *John*."

As responsives, *who*, *which*, and *what* seem to relate to no word, either *antecedent* or *subsequent*. Thus, in the response, "I do not know *who* wrote it," supplying an antecedent changes the meaning. "I do not know *the person* who wrote it," means, I am not *acquainted* with him, which is quite a different idea.

Which and *what*, when used as Interrogatives, or Responsives, or when joined with *ever* and *soever*, apply to *persons* as well as things; as, *Which* of them did it? *John*. *What* is he? A lawyer.

The Responsive used in answering a question must be the same as the one used in asking it; thus, *Who* wrote the book? I do not know *who* wrote it. *Which* of the gentlemen was it? I do not know *which* of them it was. *What* is he? I do not know *what* he is.

In asking about persons, *who* inquires for the *name*; as, "*Who* wrote the book? Mr. Webster;" *which* asks for the particular *individual*, where there are several persons of the same name; as, "*Which* of the Websters wrote it? Noah Webster;" *what* asks for the person's *character* or *occupation*; as, "*What* was Mr. Webster? A lexicographer."

Note.—A Relative Pronoun is always of the same gender, number, and person as its antecedent.



Models for Parsing.—"John, *who* was at school, wrote a letter to his father." "Who" (1.) is a relative pronoun, relating to "John" for its antecedent; (2.) it is in the masculine gender,

(3.) singular number, (4.) and third person, to agree with "John;" and (5.) it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "was."

"Give me *what* I want." "What" (1.) is a relative pronoun, relating to "that" or some other like antecedent omitted; (2.) it is in the neuter gender, (3.) singular number, (4.) and third person, to agree with the omitted antecedent; and (5.) it is in the objective case, object of the verb "want."

"We lost *what* books we had." "What" is a relative, used as an adjective pronoun, and as such qualifies "books."

"*Whoever* hopes to win the prize, must labor hard." "Whoever" (1.) is a compound relative pronoun, composed of *who* and *ever*; (2.) it relates to "person" or some other like word omitted, which omitted word is the subject of the verb "must labor;" (3.) "whoever" is in the common gender, (4.) singular number, (5.) third person, to agree with the omitted antecedent; and (6.) it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "hopes."

"*Who* wrote the letter? John." "Who" is an interrogative pronoun, relating to the subsequent word "John;" it is in the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, to agree with "John;" and is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "wrote."

"*Who* wrote the letter?" "Who" is an interrogative pronoun, relating to some noun contained in the answer, and not yet given; its gender, number, and person, therefore, cannot be determined; it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "wrote."

"I do not know *who* wrote it." "Who," is a responsive pronoun, not relating to any word, either antecedent or subsequent; its gender, number, and person, cannot be determined; it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "wrote."

Parsing Exercises. — Parse all the pronouns, Relative, Compound Relative, Interrogative, and Responsive, in the following sentences:

In this country in which we live, every one that is a citizen can enjoy what in other countries is enjoyed by only a favored few. The President whom we have just chosen to rule over us is a living example of what the poorest man may achieve. Whoever has the ability to rise, is in no way checked by a government which affords equal protection to all.

By what slow degrees the little acorn becomes the mighty oak!

Whatever skill I have in composition, is due to the manner in which I was trained.

In the haste and confusion, I could not see by whom it was that he was struck.

What happened to you and your sister on your way to school?

Parse each of the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Personal Pronouns in the foregoing sentences.

III. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The Adjective Pronouns are so called because they qualify or limit a noun, as an adjective does.

The proper rank of the class of words here called Adjective Pronouns is a matter about which there is a good deal of difference of opinion. They have the construction of adjectives, being always connected with a noun, expressed or understood. At the same time, they are used without the noun, and instead of it, in such a way, and to so much greater extent than ordinary adjectives, as to give them decidedly a Pronominal character. They seem in fact to hold a sort of middle position between adjectives and pronouns. Hence, they are called by some, Pronominal Adjectives; by others, Adjective Pronouns. I adhere to the latter name, because it has been admitted into the grammars of almost all languages, ancient and modern, and because I deem any change of established nomenclature a serious evil, not to be incurred unless for the most urgent reasons. In this case, no substantial error seems likely to arise from classing these words under either head. The principal point for the learner is to know which the words are, and to have some tolerably accurate name by which to call them.

The Adjective Pronouns are subdivided into three kinds or classes; viz. Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

Note.—*My, thy, his, her, its, our, your, and their* (which have been given as personal pronouns in the possessive case) are sometimes called Possessive Adjective Pronouns.

I. DISTRIBUTIVES.

The Distributive Adjective Pronouns are *each, every, either, neither*.

These are called Distributives, because they refer separately and singly to each person or thing of a number of persons or things. The Distributive Adjective Pronouns, therefore, are all in the singular number.

Each is used when speaking of two or more. Example: "*Each* of you must go directly home." This will be correct whether it is addressed to two persons, or to more than two.

Every is never used except when speaking of more than two. Example: "*Every* one of you must go directly home." This would not be correct if addressed to only two persons.

Each and *every* mean all that make up the number, although taken separately.

Either means one or the other, but not both. It is used, therefore, when speaking of but two persons or things.

Neither means not either.

II. DEMONSTRATIVES.

The Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns are *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*.

They are called Demonstratives, because they point out in a definite manner the objects to which they relate; as, "*This* boy recited well, but *that* boy did not;" "*These* men are officers, but *those* men are privates."

The Demonstratives *this* and *these*, are applied to near objects; *that* and *those* to objects that are distant.

In contrast, *that* refers to the first mentioned, *this* to the last; as, "Wealth and poverty are both temptations; *that* [wealth] tends to excite pride, *this* [poverty] to discontent."

III. INDEFINITES.

The Indefinite Adjective Pronouns are *any*, *all*, *such*, *some*, *both*, *one*, *none*, *other*, *another*.

They are called Indefinites, because they point out in an indefinite manner the objects to which they relate.

One, *other*, *another* are sometimes used as nouns. When thus used, they are declined. Thus:

<i>Sing.</i>	{	Nom.	One	<i>Sing.</i>	{	Nom.	Other
		Poss.	One's			Poss.	Other's
		Obj.	One			Obj.	Other
<i>Plur.</i>	{	Nom.	Ones	<i>Plur.</i>	{	Nom.	Others
		Poss.	Ones'			Poss.	Others'
		Obj.	Ones.			Obj.	Others.

Another is merely the article *an* and *other*, and is used only in the singular number, Nom. Another, Poss. Another's, Obj. Another.



Parsing Exercises.—Parse “this,” in the sentence, “John wrote *this* letter.”

Model.—“This” (1.) is a demonstrative adjective pronoun, (2.) singular number, (3.) and belongs to or limits the noun “letter.”

Parse the Pronouns, Personal, Relative, and Adjective, in the following sentences:

That class of society in which only those who are wealthy are members, and in which each individual possesses no other merit, may be respected, but it has not the highest claims to respectability. All wise and good men, of any class, or of whatever rank, or of either of the two grades which the world has made,—the rich and the poor,—are worthy of respect. Such men receive the respect of all.



V. VERBS.

A Verb is a word used to assert or affirm; as “John *strikes* the table.”

Note.—Verb takes its name from the Latin *verbum*, a word.

Affirmation is true of no other part of speech, and may be considered the distinguishing characteristic of the verb. The general idea, which in a verb is expressed in the form of an assertion, may be conceived of in various other forms, and so become successively different parts of speech. Thus, for instance, take the general idea of *sleeping*. If we think or speak of the *name* of this idea, it is a Noun, as, *sleep*. If the idea is connected with any subject as one of its accidents, qualities, or attributes, but without

any affirmation, it is an Adjective, as, the *sleepy* boy. If the idea is affirmed or predicated of the subject of discourse, it is a verb, as, the boy *sleeps*. The idea may be introduced as a modification of some other quality or attribute, and then it is an Adverb, as, the boy *acts sleepily*. In all these instances, the same general idea exists as a common substratum, or groundwork. That which distinguishes one part of speech from another, is not that one expresses some idea of an act or a substance and another does not (which is not true); but that an idea, when conceived and spoken of as the subject of discourse, is a Noun; when conceived and spoken of as an attribute or quality of some subject, is an Adjective; when affirmed or predicated, is a Verb. The following, from the Latin, is a good example of the same general idea being conceived of under different forms and becoming successively different parts of speech: "*Docere docilem facile est, ut docilitatis suæ edat documentum, celeri apprehensione doctrinæ, fiatque vir doctus, et sentiat docte.*" The distinction here insisted on is as old as Aristotle, and should not be lost sight of. See remarks upon the Adjective, pp. 40, 41.

I. ATTRIBUTES OF VERBS.

Verbs have the attributes of VOICE, MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, and PERSON.

Certain parts of the verb also are called PARTICIPLES.

I. VOICE.

Voice is that attribute of the verb which denotes whether the subject or nominative of the verb *acts*, or *is acted upon*.

Verbs have two voices, the Active, and the Passive.

The **Active Voice** is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject or nominative acts, or does the thing mentioned; as, "*John strikes the table.*"

The **Passive Voice** is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject or nominative is acted upon; as, "*The table is struck by John.*"

Explanation.—Take the sentence, "*John strikes the table.*" The subject or nominative of the verb is John, who performs the action. It is of him that the assertion is made. But suppose the same action to be

expressed thus: "The table *is struck* by John." Here, the subject or nominative of the verb is changed. It is of the *table* that the assertion is now made. In the first form of the sentence, the subject of the verb *acts*; in the second form, the subject *is acted upon*. That attribute of a verb by which it thus denotes whether the subject of the affirmation acts, or is acted upon, is called VOICE.

II. MOOD.

Mood is that attribute of a verb by which it denotes the manner or way in which the assertion is expressed.

Note.—Mood is only another form of the word "mode," and signifies manner, or way.

Verbs have five Moods, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

It is the office of the verb to assert or affirm something. If this assertion or affirmation is limited to some subject or nominative, the verb is said to be *finite*. The assertion may be connected with the subject in four different ways, giving rise to the four finite modes or moods. 1. The assertion may be expressed directly and without limitation, and then it is in the Indicative mood; as, "The boy sleeps." 2. It may be expressed as an uncertainty, and then it is in the Subjunctive mood; as, "If the boy sleep." 3. It may be expressed as a possibility, etc., and then it is in the Potential mood; as, "The boy may sleep." 4. It may be expressed as a command, etc., and then it is in the Imperative mood; as, "Sleep, boy." Sometimes the assertion is not limited to any particular subject, and then it is said to be in the Infinitive, that is, the *unlimited* mood; as, "To sleep."

The Indicative Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation; as, *He writes*.

Note.—The Indicative mood is also used in asking direct questions; as, Does the sun shine? Does my mother love me? This is sometimes called the Interrogative form.

The Subjunctive Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed as an uncertainty; as, *If he write*.

The Subjunctive mood is generally preceded by a conjunction, such as *if, though, although, unless, except, whether, lest*.

Sometimes, in the Past Tense, by transposing the words and putting the verb or a part of it before the nominative, the verb becomes Subjunctive without the use of a preceding conjunction. Thus: "*Had* I a book, I would study the lesson," "*Were* I sure of the fact, I would consent." These expressions mean, "*If* I had a book," "*If* I were sure of the fact," etc.

The Subjunctive mood is always accompanied by another verb in some other mood. Without this it cannot make complete sense. Thus, "*If* he *write* carefully, he will succeed."

The Potential Mood is that form of the verb which expresses possibility, liberty, power, willingness, or obligation; as, he *can write*; he *may write*; he *must write*.

Note.—The Potential mood is also used in asking questions; as, *May* I write? *Must* I write? etc.

The Imperative Mood is that form of the verb which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit; as, *Write* the copy according to the directions; Father, *forgive* us; *go*, if you desire it.

The Infinitive Mood is that form of the verb which is not limited to a subject, or which has no subject; as, *To write*.

Note.—The word Infinitive is from the Latin *in*, not, and *finis*, end or limit.

III. TENSE.

Tense is that attribute of a verb by which it expresses distinctions of TIME.

Note.—The word Tense is from the Latin *tempus*, time.

There are six Tenses, the Present, the Past, and the

Future; the Present-Perfect, the Past-Perfect, and the Future-Perfect.

The Present, Past, and Future are called Primary Tenses; The Present-Perfect, Past-Perfect, and Future-Perfect are called Secondary Tenses.

The names originally given to the Tenses, in works on English Grammar, were taken from the Latin Grammar, and were as follows: Present, Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect, First Future, Second Future. Two of these terms, namely, Imperfect and Perfect, which answered well enough for the Latin, have been found inconvenient and confusing, as applied to the English, and are now pretty generally abandoned.

The Latin Imperfect expressed an idea for which our only English representative is a compound, known as the Progressive Form, while the Latin Perfect expressed the two ideas which in English were called Imperfect and Perfect. Thus, the Latin Imperfect, *scribebam*, meant what we express by the Progressive form, *I was writing*. This Progressive form in English is not limited, as it is in the Latin, to a single tense, but runs through the whole verb: *I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing*, etc. Again, the Latin Perfect, *scripsi*, expressed two distinct ideas, *I wrote*, and *I have written*, which in the old English grammars were called respectively the Imperfect and the Perfect tenses. Inevitable confusion was the result of this nomenclature.

In adapting the nomenclature of the Tenses in English to the actual forms and meanings, we observe that there are three natural and primary divisions of time, the Present, the Past, and the Future, giving rise to the three primary Tenses, as represented by *I write, I wrote, I shall write*; and to each of these is joined a secondary Tense, represented severally by *I have written, I had written, I shall have written*, and each expressing, in addition to the time of its primary tense, the idea of completed action.

The Present Tense is that form of the verb which denotes simply present time; as, *I write*.

Note 1.—The Present Tense often expresses what is habitual, universal, or permanent, as, “The sun gives light by day, the moon by night;” “Charity thinketh no evil.”

Note 2.—When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as, *when, after, as soon as*, etc., the Present Tense sometimes conveys the idea of that which is yet future; as, “He will go as soon as he is ready.”

The Past Tense is that form of the verb which denotes simply past time; as, *I wrote*.

Note.—This Tense was formerly called the Imperfect Tense.

The Future Tense is that form of the verb which denotes simply future time; as, *I shall write*.

The Present-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which denotes what is past and finished, but which is connected also with the present time; as, *I have written*.

The Present-Perfect expresses what continues to the present time in its consequences, although we know that the period of the action was completed long ago; as, "Cicero has written orations." We cannot in like manner say, "Cicero has written poems." His poems are lost, his orations still exist. Cicero, *the poet*, perished long since, but Cicero, *the orator*, is still extant, and may be conceived as existing and acting in a period extending down to the present moment. For the same reason, we cannot say, "The Druids have claimed great powers," for they were long since extinct, and they have left no writing or other instrument in which such claim can be conceived as now set forth. We may, however, say, "Mahomet has claimed great powers," for the claim still exists in the Koran. An author is universally considered as living while his writings live. Hence he may be considered as having done a thing in a period of time not yet expired.

Note.—When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as*, etc., the Present-Perfect Tense, like the Present, often denotes something yet to come; as, "When I have finished my letter, I will attend to your request."

The Past-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which denotes what was past and finished, before some other event which is also past; as, *I had written* the letter, before it was called for.

The Future-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which denotes a future time prior to some other time which is itself future; as, *I shall have written* the letter before it will be called for.

Remarks on the Moods and Tenses.

1. The Number of the Tenses in the Different Moods.—The Indicative Mood has all six of the tenses; the Subjunctive has two, the Present and the Past; the Potential has four, the Present, the Past, the Present-Perfect, and the Past-Perfect; the Imperative has only the Present; and the Infinitive has the Present and the Present-Perfect.

2. The Tense, Person, and Number of the Imperative Mood.—A command, an exhortation, or an entreaty, is necessarily a present act. The Imperative mood, therefore, is always in the Present Tense. The command, exhortation, or entreaty, being spoken to some party, is necessarily in the Second Person. It will be Singular or Plural according to circumstances, as its nominative is usually either *thou*, or *you*, understood. Thus, “Sit still,” if addressed to one person, is Singular, and means, “Sit *thou* still;” if addressed to more than one, it is Plural, and means, “Sit *you* still.” Whether the nominative to the Imperative mood is *thou* understood, or *you*, must be learned, in each particular case, from other words in the sentence. “Brethren, pray for us.” Here, the word “brethren” shows that more than one are addressed. Therefore, the verb is plural, and its nominative is “you” understood. “Father, forgive them.” Here, the word “Father” shows that only one is addressed. The verb, therefore, is singular, and its nominative is “thou” understood.

Formerly, the nominative of the Imperative mood was sometimes expressed; as, “Sit *ye* here, while I go and pray yonder;” “Sit *thou* on my right hand.”

3. The Tenses of the Potential and Subjunctive Moods.—The Tenses in the Subjunctive and Potential moods are used with less precision than in the Indicative. This arises in part from the meaning of some of the auxiliaries and conjunctions, which modify the time expressed in the affirmation; and in part from mere usage, of which no other account can be given, than that the particular form does in fact convey a certain idea of time. Still, in very many cases, the tenses of the Subjunctive and Potential moods express the same distinctions of time as the tenses of the same name in the Indicative. It has not been thought expedient, therefore, to change the names of the tenses, or to invent new names, to suit every change of meaning produced by custom or by particular combination of words, but to name the tense in every case by *its form*.

Thus, in the sentence, “If he *continue* impenitent, he will perish,” the accompanying words show that the meaning of “continue” is future, although its form is that of the present. It is probably only an abbreviation for “*shall continue*.” So, also, in the sentence, “If I had the money, I would pay you,” *had* undoubtedly expresses present time, not past; still, it has the *form* of the past, and should be called accordingly. Thus, also, the auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, are often used as expressing the primary meaning of these words, that is, simply possibility, liberty,

willingness, or obligation, without distinguishing the time, or, rather, leaving the time to be determined by the other words in the sentence. They may therefore be used with equal propriety, whether the meaning is present, past, or future. Thus, "He could do it *now*, if he would" (Present); "He could not do it *yesterday*, because his father would not let him" (Past); "He could do it *to-morrow*, if his father would let him" (Future).

4. Peculiar use of the Verbs To Have and To Be.—There is a peculiar usage of *to have* and *to be* that needs to be noted. *Were* is often used with a potential meaning, or in the sense of *would be*; thus, "I *were* an idiot, thus to speak," that is, "I *would be* an idiot," etc. In like manner, *had* is used in the sense of *would have*; thus, "It *had been* good for that man if he had never been born," that is, "It *would have been* good," etc.

There is another use of *had* still more remarkable. It is where *had* bears the meaning simply of *would*; as, "I *had* as lief not be, as live to be," etc.

IV. PARTICIPLES.

A Participle is that form of the verb which partakes of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective.

Note.—The word Participle is from the Latin *particeps*, partaker of.

Nature of the Participles.—The Participles contain an affirmation in the form of a supposition, or in a kind of incomplete or suspended state. Thus, "The man *having finished* his letter will carry it to the post-office." Here, the participle "*having finished*" contains precisely the same meaning that would have been conveyed by the expression, "when he has finished." It is the affirmation of the verb subject to some limitation, or in a state of suspense. The participles also express distinctions of *time*, which is another of the peculiar properties of the verb. Hence they are, by almost common consent, considered parts of the verb. They partake also of the nature of the adjective, inasmuch as they are joined to a noun in construction, in the same manner as an adjective is.

The Participles are three, the Present, the Past or Perfect, and the Compound-Perfect.

The Present Participle denotes that which is now in progress; as, *going, being, living, working*, etc. The Present participles all end in *ing*.

The Past or Perfect Participle denotes that which is complete or finished ; as, *written, stolen, added*.

The Compound-Perfect Participle denotes that which is finished before something else mentioned ; as, *having written, having stolen, having added*.

Many mistakes have arisen from supposing the English participles to correspond, more nearly than they in truth do, to the Latin participles. In Latin, excepting in deponent verbs, the Present participle is always active, the Past always passive. Hence, some grammarians assume the same to be always true in English. They take for granted that the participle in *ing* is essentially and necessarily active, and that the participle in *ed* is essentially and necessarily passive. Neither of these is true.

The Past participle is extensively used in making the compound forms of the active voice. When we analyze one of these compound expressions, as for instance, *he had concealed*, we call *had* the auxiliary, and *concealed* the past participle. But the force of the participle in this combination is different from what it is when found in the passive voice, or when standing alone. Thus, in the sentence, "He had a dagger concealed under his cloak," *concealed* is passive, signifying *being* concealed ; but in the former combination, it goes to make up a form the force of which is active. This is obvious the moment we attempt to translate the two expressions into any language where the difference is distinguished by a difference of termination. Thus, in Latin, "He had concealed the dagger," would be "*pugionem abdidit* ;" but, "He had the dagger concealed," would be "*pugionem abditum habuit*." It should be remarked, however, that this participle in the active is found only in combination. Whenever it stands alone, to be parsed as a participle, it is passive.

A usage similar in some respects prevails in regard to the Present participle in *ing*. When it stands by itself, as a participle, it is invariably active. But in combination, in making what is called the Progressive Form of the verb, it is not invariably active ; as, in the phrase, "The house is building." I know the correctness of this mode of expression has lately been very much assailed, and an attempt, to some extent successful, has been made to introduce the form "is being built." But, in the first place, the old mode of expression is a well established usage of the language, being found in our best and most correct writers. Secondly, the same reasoning which has led to the expression "is being built," would lead equally to such cumbersome forms as "was being built," "has been being built," "had been being built," "shall be being built," "shall have been being built," "might have been being built," etc. Thirdly, the same mode of proceeding, which requires us in this case to deny any force to usage, and to consider the termination *ing* always active, because it is generally so, would lead, if carried out, to still wider con-

sequences. For instance, when we say, "The house is building," the advocates of the new theory ask, "building what?" We might ask in turn, when you say, "Wheat sells well," sells what? If usage allows us to say, "Wheat sells at a dollar," in a sense that is not active, why may it not also allow us to say, "Wheat is selling at a dollar," in a sense that is not active?

V. NUMBER AND PERSON.

Verbs have variations of form, to correspond with the number and person of their subject. These variations are called the Numbers and Persons of the verb.

Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural; and three Persons, First, Second, and Third. Thus:

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>First Person.</i>	I am.	<i>First Person.</i>	We are.
<i>Second Person.</i>	Thou art.	<i>Second Person.</i>	You are.
<i>Third Person.</i>	He is.	<i>Third Person.</i>	They are.

II. CLASSES OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided into the following classes: TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE; REGULAR and IRREGULAR; IMPERSONAL, DEFECTIVE, and AUXILIARY.

I. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

A Transitive Verb is one which requires an objective case to complete the meaning; as, James *writes* a letter.

An Intransitive Verb is one which does not require an objective case to complete the meaning; as, John *sleeps*.

Explanation.—In the sentences, "James touched *Peter*," "James touched *him*," if the object is left out, and we say simply "James touched —," the meaning is incomplete.

Note.—The word Transitive is from the Latin *trans*, across, over to, and *ire, itum*, to go.

Remarks on Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

1. Many verbs are used either transitively or intransitively; as, "He reads well," "He reads a book."

2. Intransitive verbs are not used in the Passive Voice: thus, we may say *to laugh*, but not *to be laughed*.

3. When verbs usually intransitive are followed by certain prepositions, the verb and preposition sometimes form a kind of compound verb, which is transitive, and admits of a passive voice: thus, we say *to laugh at* a person (Act.); *to be laughed at* by him, (Pass.)

4. Verbs usually intransitive sometimes take after them an objective of kindred signification. In that case they are transitive, and admit of a passive voice; as, "I run a race," "A race is run."

5. Transitive verbs in English are sometimes used without an objective case, in a sense between the active and passive voices; as, *I taste the apple; the apple is tasted by me; the apple tastes sweet.*

There are two classes of verbs perfectly distinct from each other, viz.: Those which do, and those which do not, require an objective case in order to complete the meaning. The terms *active* and *neuter*, formerly used to express this distinction, are now generally abandoned. A strong objection to them was, that, in many verbs which require an objective case, it is at least doubtful whether any action, in the ordinary sense of that term, takes place; while, on the contrary, a large proportion of the verbs called *neuter*, and which, by the definition, ought to express no action, do yet in fact express action in the highest degree, as, *to run*, *to walk*, *to swim*, etc. Another and still stronger objection was that the terms *active* and *neuter*, as applied to verbs, produced confusion and doubt about the distinctions of active and passive, as applied to Voice. It needs no argument to prove that *I am struck* is just as really a modification of *to strike*, as *I have struck* is; and yet, under the old classification of active, passive, and neuter, the pupil was taught to consider these forms as two verbs belonging to different classes. *I have struck*, for instance, was called an active verb; *I am struck*, a passive verb; and *I walk*, a neuter verb. Under the present arrangement, the terms *Active* and *Passive* express a distinction, not of verbs, but of Voice. The active voice of a verb is distinguished from its passive voice, just as one of its moods or tenses is distinguished from any other mood or tense. There would seem to be no more reason for dividing verbs into active and passive verbs, than for dividing them into present verbs, past verbs, indicative verbs, potential verbs, etc.

Verbs may indeed be divided into those which express action, and those which do not express action. But the number of the latter will be very small, including the verbs *to be*, *to exist*, and some few others; and the distinction, when conceded, will be of no available use for any of the practical purposes of grammar. Some verbs will be found requiring an objective case, in which it is difficult to perceive any action, while others expressing intense activity will be found without an objective case.

The terms Transitive and Intransitive have been used, because in very many, perhaps a majority, of the verbs which take an objective case, some action may be conceived as passing from the agent to the object; as, *James strikes the table*. Here, the act of *striking* passes from the agent, James, to the object, which is the table. There are many cases, however, in which such a transition cannot readily be traced; as, *he enjoys repose*. Still, the terms seem the least objectionable that have yet been proposed, especially if limited by their definition to the classification really meant, viz.: to VERBS WHICH DO, AND THOSE WHICH DO NOT, REQUIRE AN OBJECTIVE CASE.

II. REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

A Regular Verb is one that forms its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *love*; Past, *loved*; Past Participle, *loved*.

Note.—In the case of Regular Verbs ending in *e*, the *e* final of the verb is dropped on taking the suffix *ed*. (See Rule II, Part I, page 17.)

An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *write*; Past, *wrote*; Past Participle, *written*.

The Verbs now called Irregular are in fact the remains of the original and oldest form of the English verb, that known as the Strong Conjugation. It was formed mainly by internal changes in the stem of the word, as *drive* *drove*, *sing* *sang*, *steal* *stole*, rather than by a suffix. In like manner, the few nouns said to be irregular, as *man* *men*, *tooth* *teeth*, etc., are the remains of the earliest mode of forming the plural.

Some of the verbs called Irregular are really parts of different defective verbs, put together to make one whole. Thus, *go* and *gone* are the Present and Participle of a verb whose Past tense has become obsolete, while *went* is the Past tense of another verb of like meaning. In like manner, *am*, *was*, *been*, are severally parts of three distinct verbs, each wanting its other parts, and each expressing the common idea of existence.

The Irregular Verbs.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, awaked,	awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	bore, bare,	born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beat, beaten.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	bended, bent,	bended, bent.
Bereave,	bereaved, bereft,	bereaved, bereft.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bestride,	bestrid, bestrode,	bestrid, bestridden.
Betide,	betid, betided,	betid.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, builded,	built, builded.
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned, burnt.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, catched,	caught, catched.
Chide,	chid,	chid, chidden.
Choose,	chose,	chosen, chose.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, crowed,	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	dared, durst,	dared.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Deal,	dealed, dealt,	dealed, dealt.
Dig,	dug, digged,	dug, digged.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamed, dreamt,	dreamed, dreamt.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelled, dwelt,	dwelled, dwelt.
Eat,	eat, ate,	eat, eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight.	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.
Gird,	girded, girt,	girded, girt.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven, graved.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang,	hanged, hung,	hanged, hung.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heave,	heaved, hove,	heaved.
Hew,	hewed,	hewed, hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hid, hidden.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	kneeled, knelt,	kneeled, knelt.
Knit,	knit, knitted,	knit, knitted.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laded, laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie (<i>to recline</i>),	lay,	lain.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed, mown.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Pen (<i>to coop</i>),	penned, pent,	penned, pent.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit, quitted,	quit, quitted.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid, ridded,	rid, ridded.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	rived, riven.
Run,	ran, run,	run.
Say,	said,	said.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed, sawn.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	seethed,	seethed, sodden.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	sheared, shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, shined,	shone, shined.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown, showed.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slid, slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, slitted,	slit, slitted.
Smell,	smelled, smelt,	smelled, smelt.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sowed, sown.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken.
Speed,	sped, speeded,	sped, speeded.
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled, spelt.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilled, spilt,	spilled, spilt.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spit.
Split,	split, splitted,	split, splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled, spoilt,	spoiled, spoilt.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	staved, stove,	staved, stove.
Stay,	stayed, staid,	stayed, staid.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Strew,	strewed,	strewed, strewn.
Stride,	strid, strode,	strid, stridden.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweat, sweated,	sweat, sweated.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled, swollen.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived,	thrived, thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trod, trodden.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven, wove.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Wet,	wet, wetted,	wet, wetted.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

III. IMPERSONAL VERBS.

An Impersonal Verb is one which is never used except with the pronoun *it* for its subject; as, “It *snows*.”

Note.—We never say, “I snow,” “Thou snowest,” “He snows,” etc.

In the earlier forms of the English, Impersonal verbs were of very frequent occurrence, as much so as in Latin, and the construction was precisely like that of the Latin Impersonals, the verb having no subject, and the noun or pronoun representing the subject being in the dative. Of the once extensive array of words in this form, all that now remain in English are the two compounds, *me-seems* and *me-thinks*. In both these, the *me* was originally a separate word, and was in the dative case, meaning *to me*. The

thinks, of the second compound, is not, as it seems to be, from the word signifying *to think*, which was *thencan*, but from *thincan*, which meant *to seem*. The two compounds, therefore, meant originally precisely the same, namely, *to-me-seems*, or, transposing, *seems to me*; and the exact, literal equivalent of each, in the Latin, is *mihi videtur*.

The forms in modern English, which are called Impersonal, such as *it snows*, *it rains*, etc., are not, strictly speaking, Impersonal, as each has an indefinite subject *it*. The only strictly Impersonal verbs that we now have are the two compounds, *me-seems* and *me-thinks*, already noticed.

IV. DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A Defective Verb is one that is not used in all the Moods and Tenses; as, *must*, *ought*, *quoth*, etc.

V. AUXILIARY VERBS.

An Auxiliary Verb is one which helps to form the Moods and Tenses of other verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *be*, *do*, *have*, and *will*.

Remarks on the Auxiliary Verbs.

1. These are called Auxiliary, or helping verbs, because by their help the other verbs form most of their moods and tenses.

2. *Be*, *do*, *have*, and sometimes *will*, are also used as principal verbs; as, they *may be* here; they *do* nothing; they *have* nothing; they *will* it to be so. As principal verbs, they have all the moods and tenses which other verbs have.

3. *Be*, as an Auxiliary, is used in all its moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, in forming the passive voice of other verbs; as, I *am* loved, I *was* loved, I *have been* loved, etc.

4. *Have*, *do*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, as Auxiliaries, are used in only two forms, and *must* in only one form, viz.:

Present. Have, do, will, shall, can, may, must.

Past. Had, did, would, should, could, might.

5. These forms taken by themselves may be considered as the Present and Past, but they do not always form the present and past when in combination with the other Auxiliaries or with the principal verb.

6. *Shall, may, can, and must* are defective, having only the tenses given above, and are never used except as Auxiliaries.

It would be a mistake to suppose, as is sometimes done, that the Auxiliaries are mere inventions, introduced into the language for the purpose of making out the necessary forms. There is abundant evidence that the auxiliaries were originally independent verbs, and that the verbs following the auxiliaries were in the infinitive mood, *to* being omitted. "*To*," indeed, as a sign of the infinitive, was introduced into the language only in the later stages of its history. Originally, "*to*" was never found in connection with the infinitive. Even now it is not so found after some verbs; as, "*I bade him follow.*" Here, "*follow*" is recognized as being in the infinitive, just as much as "*to follow*" is in the sentence, "*I told him to follow.*" So also "*I saw him (to) follow*" "*They need not (to) follow,*" etc. The auxiliary "*shall*," meant, originally, "*to be obliged.*" "*I shall (to) write,*" meant, "*I am obliged to write.*" So long as "*shall*" retained its original meaning and force, it was quite proper to parse "*write*" as being in the infinitive mood, as we do the verb "*follow*" in the previous examples. In like manner, all the compound tenses may be analyzed. This analysis, and the study of the proper force of the auxiliaries by themselves, are important as affording the best clue to the true meaning and use of the various moods and tenses.

It would be an equal mistake, on the other hand, because these compound forms may be thus analyzed and traced to original independent elements in the language, to deny their present existence as compounds, and to assert, as some recent grammarians have done, that there are in English but two tenses, the present and the past. As in chemistry, an alkali and an acid, when combined, form a compound with properties not found in either of the ingredients, so in language, particular combinations of words acquire by use new meanings not possessed by the words taken singly. The phrase "*I shall be*" meant, originally, "*I am obliged to be,*" and the connection between these two ideas may be very ingeniously and truly traced. But the phrase now expresses simply and absolutely the idea of *futurity*, without any sort of *obligation*. The man who says, "*I shall be in New York to-morrow,*" conveys by the words *shall be* precisely what he would by the Latin *ero*. The former is just as much the future tense of the verb *to be* as the latter is of the verb *esse*. To parse *shall* as a verb in the present tense, and *be* in the infinitive, would be just as erroneous as to deny Person to the Hebrew verb, because the forms of the persons may be analyzed, and the personal pronouns clearly detected in the terminations, and separated, if need be, from the rest of the verb.

The same reasoning will apply to the proposed analysis of the other compound forms, *do love, did love, have loved, have been*, etc. The object aimed at is simplification. The writers in question seem, at first sight, to

accomplish their end, for they apparently despatch the whole verb, moods, tenses, and all, in a single sweeping paragraph. But in the end, the learner finds he has quite as much to learn in detached and unconnected parcels, as he had before under a systematic and orderly arrangement.

III. CONJUGATION.

The Conjugation of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

Note.—The verb “To Be” is irregular and intransitive, and has no voice.

Conjugation of the verb *To Be*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am.
2. Thou art.
3. He is.

Plural.

1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

Plural.

1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.
3. He will be.

Plural.

1. We shall be.
2. You will be.
3. They will be.

Present-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.*
3. He has been.

Plural.

1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

Plural.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

Future-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.
3. He will have been.

Plural.

1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been.
3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.

1. If we be.
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I were.
2. If thou wert.
3. If he were.

Plural.

1. If we were.
2. If you were.
3. If they were.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may be.
2. Thou mayst be.
3. He may be.

Plural.

1. We may be.
2. You may be.
3. They may be.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might be.
2. Thou mightst be.
3. He might be.

Plural.

1. We might be.
2. You might be.
3. They might be.

Present-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I may have been.
2. Thou mayst have been.
3. He may have been.

Plural.

1. We may have been.
2. You may have been.
3. They may have been.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.
3. He might have been.

Plural.

1. We might have been.
2. You might have been.
3. They might have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*2. Be, *or* be thou.*Plural.*2. Be, *or* be you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be.*Present-Perfect.* To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.*Past or Perfect.* Been.*Compound-Perfect.* Having been.

Remarks on the Conjugation.

1. In the formation of the Futures, we have two Auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*. For the expression of simple futurity, we use *shall* in the First Person, and *will* in the Second and Third Persons, as given in the table. On the other hand, by using *will* in the First Person, and *shall* in the Second and Third Persons, we express the various ideas of promise, command, obligation, etc. Thus: "I will be there" expresses a promise. "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God" is a command. "He shall do it" (*i. e.* I will make him) expresses obligation or necessity.

2. The singular form, *thou art*, etc., is now used only in acts of worship, or on other solemn occasions. In ordinary discourse, in addressing one person, we say *you are*, *you were*, etc., the meaning being singular, but the form plural.

3. In the third person, the nominative of the verb may be any of the personal pronouns, *he*, *she*, *it*, any of the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, etc., or any noun. For convenience of recitation, one nominative only is inserted.

4. In the Potential mood the auxiliary may be,

In the Present tense, *may*, *can*, or *must*;

In the Past tense, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*;

In the Present-Perfect tense, *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*;

In the Past-Perfect tense, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*.

5. In conjugating the Subjunctive mood, the conjunction before the verb may be *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *lest*, etc. For convenience in recitation, one conjunction only is

used. It may also be conjugated in the Past tense by omitting the conjunction and transposing the nominative and verb. Thus: were I, wert thou, were he; were we, were you, were they.

By putting before a verb any conjunction expressing doubt or contingency, a form may be created which by some is called the Subjunctive mood. Such a form, requiring merely the prefixing of the conjunction, and involving no change in the verb itself, may be continued through all the tenses of the Indicative, and even through the tenses of the Potential: Thus: *Ind.* If I am, if I was, if I shall be, if I have been, if I had been, if I shall have been; *Pot.* If I may be, if I might be, if I may have been, if I might have been. This form, for the tenses at least of the Indicative, is by some called the Subjunctive mood. The propriety of this term is questionable. It seems best to limit the mood to those two tenses, the Present and the Past, in which there is some difference of form in the verb itself.

It may be said, indeed, that the form *if I am*, cannot be Indicative, because it expresses doubt or contingency, instead of merely indicating or declaring. But it should be noticed, the doubt or contingency is expressed not by the verb, *I am*, but by the conjunction *if*. The definition of the Indicative refers solely to the "form of the verb" itself, not to any of the circumstances that may be thrown around it by the interposition of other words.

Exercises.— Conjugate the verb "to be" through the Indicative mood, using "she" in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative mood, using "it" in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative mood, using "the man" for the subject in the singular, and "the men" for the subject in the plural.

Conjugate the verb through the Subjunctive mood, using "though" instead of "if."

Conjugate it in like manner, using any of the other conjunctions named.

Conjugate it in the Potential mood, Present tense, using "can" instead of "may." Conjugate it, using "must."

Conjugate it in the Past tense, using "could;" using "would;" using "should."

Conjugate it in the Present-Perfect tense, using "can have;" using "must have."

Conjugate it in the Past-Perfect tense, using "could have;" using "would have;" using "should have."

Conjugation of the verb *To Love*.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I love.
2. Thou lovest.
3. He loves.

Plural.

1. We love.
2. You love.
3. They love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I loved.
2. Thou lovedst.
3. He loved.

Plural.

1. We loved.
2. You loved.
3. They loved.

*Future Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall love.
2. Thou wilt love.
3. He will love.

Plural.

1. We shall love.
2. You will love.
3. They will love.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.
3. He has loved.

Plural.

1. We have loved.
2. You have loved.
3. They have loved.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.
3. He had loved.

Plural.

1. We had loved.
2. You had loved.
3. They had loved.

*Future-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall have loved.
2. Thou wilt have loved.
3. He will have loved.

Plural.

1. We shall have loved.
2. You will have loved.
3. They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I love.
2. If thou love.
3. If he love.

Plural.

1. If we love.
2. If you love.
3. If they love.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I loved.
2. If thou loved.
3. If he loved.

Plural.

1. If we loved.
2. If you loved.
3. If they loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may love.
2. Thou mayst love.
3. He may love.

Plural.

1. We may love.
2. You may love.
3. They may love.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might love.
2. Thou mightst love.
3. He might love.

Plural.

1. We might love.
2. You might love.
3. They might love.

Present-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.
3. He may have loved.

Plural.

1. We may have loved.
2. You may have loved.
3. They may have loved.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.
3. He might have loved.

Plural.

1. We might have loved.
2. You might have loved.
3. They might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

Love, or love thou.

Plural.

Love, or love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To love.*Present-Perfect.* To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving.*Past or Perfect.* Loved.*Compound-Perfect.*

Having loved.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

Note.—The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by placing before its Past Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *To be*.

Intransitive Verbs have no Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I am loved.
2. Thou art loved.
3. He is loved.

Plural.

1. We are loved.
2. You are loved.
3. They are loved.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I was loved.
2. Thou wast loved.
3. He was loved.

Plural.

1. We were loved.
2. You were loved.
3. They were loved.

*Future Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall be loved.
2. Thou wilt be loved.
3. He will be loved.

Plural.

1. We shall be loved.
2. You will be loved.
3. They will be loved.

Present-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.
3. He has been loved.

Plural.

1. We have been loved.
2. You have been loved.
3. They have been loved.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.
3. He had been loved.

Plural.

1. We had been loved.
2. You had been loved.
3. They had been loved.

Future-Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall have been loved.
2. Thou wilt have been loved.
3. He will have been loved.

Plural.

1. We shall have been loved.
2. You will have been loved.
3. They will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be loved.
2. If thou be loved.
3. If he be loved.

Plural.

1. If we be loved.
2. If you be loved.
3. If they be loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I were loved.
2. If thou wert loved.
3. If he were loved.

Plural.

1. If we were loved.
2. If you were loved.
3. If they were loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be loved.
3. He may be loved.

Plural.

1. We may be loved.
2. You may be loved.
3. They may be loved.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might be loved.
2. Thou mightst be loved.
3. He might be loved.

Plural.

1. We might be loved.
2. You might be loved.
3. They might be loved.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may have been loved.
2. Thou mayst have been loved.
3. He may have been loved.

Plural.

1. We may have been loved.
2. You may have been loved.
3. They may have been loved.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might have been loved.
2. Thou mightst have been loved.
3. He might have been loved.

Plural.

1. We might have been loved.
2. You might have been loved.
3. They might have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

2. Be loved, *or* be thou loved.
2. Be loved, *or* be you loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- Present.* To be loved. *Present-Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved.

Past or Perfect. Loved.

Compound-Perfect. Having been loved.

III. PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The **Progressive Form** of a verb is that which represents the action as in progress, or incomplete.

Note.—This is called sometimes the **Progressive form**, because it represents the action as still in progress; sometimes, the **Imperfect form**, because action in progress is necessarily incomplete; and sometimes the **Definite form**, because it marks the time of the action in every case with perfect definiteness and precision.

The Progressive form of any verb is made by placing before its Present Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *to be*. Thus: I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing, etc. It has not been thought necessary to cumber the text-book by inserting these forms in full. Any pupil can form them at will who has learned the conjugation of the verb *to be*.

Exercises in the Progressive Form.

Conjugate the verb "sing" through all the tenses of the Indicative mood, in the Progressive form.

Conjugate "know" through the Subjunctive mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate "write" through the Potential mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate "stand" through the Imperative and Infinitive moods, Progressive form.

Remark.—A verb in the Progressive form is always in the Active voice.

IV. EMPHATIC FORM.

The Emphatic Form of a verb is that in which the assertion is expressed with emphasis.

The Emphatic Form of a verb is made by placing before it the verb *do* as an auxiliary.

The Emphatic Form is used only in the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods, Active voice, and in the Imperative mood, both Active and Passive.

Conjugation of the verb *To Love*, in the Emphatic Form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does love.

Plural.

1. We do love.
2. You do love.
3. They do love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.

Plural.

1. We did love.
2. You did love.
3. They did love.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I do love.
2. If thou do love.
3. If he do love.

Plural.

1. If we do love.
2. If you do love.
3. If they do love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I did love.
2. If thou did love.
3. If he did love.

Plural.

1. If we did love.
2. If you did love.
3. If they did love.

IMPERATIVE.

Active — Present Tense.

Singular. Do (thou) love. *Plural.* Do (you) love.

Passive — Present Tense.

Singular. Do (thou) be loved. *Plural.* Do (you) be loved.



Parsing Exercises. — Sentence. — “James *writes* a letter.”
Parse “writes.”

Model. — “Writes” (1.) is a verb, it contains an assertion ; (2.) transitive, it requires an objective case after it ; (3.) irregular, it does not form its past tense and past participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* (Pres. write, Past, wrote, Past P. written) ; (4.) active voice, it denotes that the nominative “James” acts or does the thing mentioned ; (5.) indicative mood, the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation ; (6.) present tense, it denotes present time ; (7.) singular number, third person (I write, thou writest, he writes, or James writes) ; (8.) and has for its subject the noun James.

Abbreviated Model. — “Writes” is (1.) a verb, (2.) transitive, (3.) irregular (write, wrote, written), (4.) active voice, (5.) indicative mood, (6.) present tense, (7.) singular number, third person, (8.) and has for its subject the noun James.

Exercises.—Parse all the Verbs in the following sentences:

A witty punster may afford amusement to persons, but amusement is not the business of life, though it tends ever so much to relieve the mind. Therefore, do not consider him a model worthy of imitation.

My son, wert thou a father, thou couldst understand the feelings of him who now mourns over the wrong which thou hast committed. Had I been thy son, I think I would not only have been grieved on account of that which I had done, but also would have regretted that I had caused sorrow in the breast of him who loved me so tenderly.

The miser will will his property to those who will perhaps use it for sinful purposes. Had he had less avarice, his happiness would have been increased. Do not do as he does, lest thou, like him, become a wretched man, and have to say, "I have been heaping up riches all my life, but I have not been increasing my happiness. Had I been adding to the happiness of others, and laying up treasures where moth and rust do not corrupt, I would have been employing myself better and saving my soul."

If he acquire riches, they will corrupt his mind.

Though he is high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Despise not any condition, lest it happen to be thine own.



VI. ADVERBS.

An Adverb is a word used to qualify a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, He writes *rapidly*.

Examples.—Come *here instantly* and answer me *more respectfully*, or you will receive a *very* severe correction.

"Here" qualifies the verb "come," it tells *where* you are to come.

"Instantly" also qualifies "come," it tells *when* you are to come.

"Respectfully" qualifies the verb "answer," it tells *in what manner* you are to answer.

"More" qualifies the adverb "respectfully," it tells *how* respectfully you are to answer.

"Very" qualifies the adjective "severe," it tells *how* severe the punishment will be.

Remarks on Adverbs.

1. The word *adverb* is from the Latin *ad*, to, and *verbum*, a word or verb, because the adverb is regarded mainly as a word added to the verb.

2. Adverbs are not necessary parts of speech, as their meaning can always be expressed by other parts of speech. They generally express in one word what would otherwise require several words. *Here*, for instance, means "in this place."

3. Some of the adverbs appear to be formed by the combination of two or more words, which have gradually coalesced into one. Thus, *bravely* is an abbreviation of *brave-like*, *wisely* of *wise-like*, *happily* of *happy-like*, etc. Others again are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used for *at*, *on*, etc.; as, *aside*, *ahead*, *abroad*, *ashore*, *aground*, *afloat*.

4. Sometimes several words are taken together and called an adverbial phrase; as, *at length*, *in vain*, etc. These expressions are elliptical, and the ellipsis can almost always be supplied. Whenever this can be done, the words should be parsed separately.

5. Some adverbs perform at the same time the office of adverbs and of conjunctions; as, "They will come *when* they are ready." Here, "*when*" both declares the time of the action, and so is an adverb; and also connects the two verbs, and so is a conjunction. These are called, by some grammarians, conjunctive adverbs; by others, adverbial conjunctions. The most common of them are, *when*, *where*, *whither*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *then*, etc.

6. The adverb *there* is often used as a mere expletive, without apparently any signification of its own, as in this sentence, "*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John."

7. Some words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as adjectives. Among these are the following: *little*, *less*, *least*, *better*, *best*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *no*, *only*, *well*, *ill*, *still*, *first*. If any of these words qualifies a noun, it is an adjective; but, if it qualifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, then it is an adverb.

• Comparison of Adverbs.

Many Adverbs are compared.

Some Adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*; as, happily, *more* happily, *most* happily; *less* happily, *least* happily.

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Well	better	best
Ill	worse	worst
Badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Far	farther	farthest.

Classes of Adverbs.

Adverbs are divided into classes, according to their signification. The most important of these classes are

1. Adverbs of Manner or Quality; as, *well, ill, swiftly, smoothly, truly*, with a great many others formed from adjectives by adding the termination *ly*. This is by far the most numerous class of adverbs.

2. Adverbs of Place; as, *here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, somewhere, nowhere*, etc.

3. Adverbs of Time; as, *now, then, when, ever, never, soon, often, seldom, lately*, etc.

4. Adverbs of Quantity; as, *much, little, sufficiently, enough, scarcely*, etc.

5. Adverbs of Direction; as, *downward, upward, forward, backward, homeward, heavenward, hitherward, thitherward*, etc.

6. Adverbs of Number, Order, etc. (including all those formed from the Numeral Adjectives); as, *first, secondly, thirdly*, etc.; *once, twice, thrice*, etc.; *singly, doubly, triply*.

7. Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation; as, *yes, no, verily, indeed, nay, nowise, doubtless*, etc.

8. Adverbs of Interrogation; as, *how, why, when, where, whither, whence*, etc.

9. Adverbs of Comparison; as, *more, most, less, least, better, best, very, exceedingly, nearly, almost*, etc.

10. Adverbs of Uncertainty; as, *perchance, perhaps, peradventure*.

Note.—Adverbs are very numerous. The above is not intended as a complete list of them, nor even a complete classification.



Parsing Exercises.—Sentence.—“John wrote the letter *hastily*.”

Model.—“*Hastily*” (1.) is an adverb, it qualifies the verb “wrote;” (2.) it is an adverb of *manner*, it tells the manner in which he wrote; (3.) it is compared, *hastily*, *more hastily*, *most hastily*.

Note.—When the adverb does not admit of comparison, the third thing to say of it will be, “not compared.”

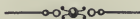
Exercises.—Parse all the Adverbs in the following sentences:

There was no orator who spoke more fluently. Thrice was he applauded. Turn your eye whither you would, you might see persons attentively listening. Seldom was such an attentive multitude assembled in our much too quiet village.

When the water was hot enough, he boiled the herbs in it thoroughly and made the tea sufficiently strong.

This idle boy was the least attentive of the scholars, and studied least. He therefore received the least amount of benefit. Better boys will behave better and reap a better reward.

Parse all the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs in the foregoing sentences.



VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, sentences, and parts of sentences; as, John *and* James study; John writes *and* James reads.

The following are the principal Conjunctions; *also*, *although*, *and*, *as*, *because*, *both*, *but*, *either*, *for*, *if*, *lest*, *neither*, *nor*, *or*, *since*, *than*, *that*, *then*, *therefore*, *though*, *unless*, *wherefore*, *whether*, *yet*, etc.

The word Conjunction is from the Latin *con*, together, and *junctus*, joined, because it joins together.

Some conjunctions are used in pairs, and are to be taken together in parsing. Such conjunctions are called *Correlatives*. The principal Correlative Conjunctions are *as—so, although—yet, both—and, either—or, neither—nor, whether—or, if—then, though—yet*.

Some conjunctions, not Correlatives, are yet to be parsed together, because the connection of the words or sentences is made, not by any one of these conjunctions, but by the two or more taken together. Such collections of words are called *Complex Conjunctions*. The principal Complex Conjunctions are *as if, as well as, but that, except that, forasmuch as, inasmuch as, even though*, etc.

It is a mistake to suppose that the conjunctions and prepositions serve merely to connect the other parts of a sentence without any significance of their own. These words were all originally other parts of speech, viz.: verbs, nouns, and adjectives. Most of them may be distinctly traced, and the meaning of the original recognized in the modern abbreviations. Thus, *if* is the imperative of the Saxon *gifan*, to give. “*If* it is fair to-morrow, I will go out,” means “*give* (grant) it to be fair to-morrow,” etc. Still, as the original words from which the conjunctions and prepositions are derived are mostly obsolete, these words are to be now regarded in reference to their present use, and not to their original character. Thus, to require a child to parse *if* as the imperative of the verb *gifan*, to give, and *unless* as the imperative of the verb *onlesan*, to dismiss, would only serve to perplex and embarrass. Where, however, the words are still in current use in the language, the case is different, and it becomes extremely doubtful whether they ought to be considered as prepositions and conjunctions, or whether they ought not to be classed among other parts of speech according to their obvious meaning. Examples of this sort are, *except, excepting, regarding, touching, respecting, notwithstanding*, etc.



Parsing Exercises. — Sentence. — “John *and* James are brothers.”

First Model. — “And” is a conjunction, it connects the noun “John” with the noun “James.”

Note. — When conjunctions connect words, those words will be the same parts of speech, that is a verb and a verb, an adjective

and an adjective, etc., except that nouns and pronouns may be connected by a conjunction.

Second Model.—“John studies his lesson carefully, *but* James is very negligent of his lesson.” “But” is a conjunction, it connects the sentence “John studies his lesson carefully,” with the sentence “James is very negligent of his lesson.”

Third Model.—“*Neither* man *nor* beast could endure the fatigue.” “Neither” and “nor” are Correlative Conjunctions, used to connect the nouns “man” and “beast.”

Exercises.—Parse each of the Conjunctions in the following sentences :

Unless a man lacks virtue, whether he is humble in rank or poor in purse, he is worthy of respect and esteem. Yet there are some who, notwithstanding their wealth and the advantages of fortune, are deemed respectable, though their vicious habits should subject them to contempt. These shun the virtuous poor, lest they might degrade themselves in their own estimation. But they forget that they might be improved by intercourse with their virtuous but poor brethren.

Insert proper conjunctions in the following sentences :

I shall need an umbrella, — it rain to-morrow ; — — it be a clear day, I shall not need it, — I never use it to protect me from the sun — the snow.

The colonel remained at his post, — he was near fainting from the loss of blood — the pain of his wounds. He declared — no one else should stand by the flag ; he would protect it, while he had life — strength left. Faithfully — heroically he kept his word.

Review Exercise.—Parse each of the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, and Adverbs in the foregoing sentences.



VIII. PREPOSITIONS.

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word ; as, I write *with* a pen.

Note 1.—The word preposition takes its name from *præ*, before, and *positus*, placed, because it is placed before a noun.

Note 2.—Prepositions and conjunctions are intimately related, both being connecting words. But conjunctions connect things of the same kind, and connect them as equals, an adjective with an adjective, a noun with a noun, a verb with a verb, a sentence with a sentence, etc. A preposition connects differently. It ties on, as it were, one word to another, as a sort of addition. Moreover, the word thus tied on by a preposition is always either a noun or a pronoun, while almost any part of speech may follow a conjunction. The preposition also connects the noun following it, not only to another noun, but to other parts of speech, as a verb, an adjective, etc. Examples:

“I write *with* a pen.” “With” connects “pen” (a noun) with “write” (a verb). It connects the act with the instrument, and shows the relation between them.

“The man *in* the next room.” “In” connects “room” with “man,” shows a relation between the two.

“Taller *by* an inch.” “By” connects its dependent noun “inch” with “taller” (an adjective).

“Dying *of* fever.” The dependent noun is connected by its preposition “of” to “dying,” a participle.

Note 3.—Some of the Prepositions are original and uncompounded words. These are the most important, and should be thoroughly committed to memory. Nearly all of them refer in some way to place or position.

Simple Prepositions.

The Simple Prepositions are nineteen: viz., *at, after, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, under, up, with.*

Note.—*After* is supposed to be the comparative of *aft*. Doubts have been raised in regard to the true character of *past*.

Compound Prepositions.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *a* to some other word: *above, about, across, against, along, amid* or *amidst, among* or *amongst, around, athwart.*

The prefix *a*, which occurs in these and so many other English compounds, represents a variety of small words, such as *at*, *of*, *in*, *on*, *to*, etc. In the compound prepositions it generally represents *on* or *in*. The other part of the compound is some noun, adjective, adverb, or other preposition.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *be* (by) to some other words: *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside* or *besides*, *between* or *betwixt*, *beyond*.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by uniting without change two prepositions, or a preposition and an adverb: *upon*, *toward*, *towards*, *unto*, *into*, *within*, *without*, *throughout*, *underneath*.

Note 1. — *According to*, *instead of*, and *out of*, are sometimes inserted among the compound prepositions. But there is no necessity of such a course. The words are written separately, and may all be parsed separately. *According* is an adjective or a participle, and always belongs to some noun expressed or understood. *Instead* is simply *in stead*. *Out* is either an adverb or an adjective, according to circumstances.

Note 2. — *Bating*, *concerning*, *during*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *touching*, though participles, strictly speaking, frequently have the construction of prepositions, and may be so parsed.

Note 3. — There is no more reason for considering *near* and *nigh* prepositions than for considering *like* a preposition. The preposition *to* is understood in all such cases; thus, “like (to) a man,” “near (to) the city,” “nigh (to) the river.” An ellipsis of *from* after the adverb *off* has in like manner caused the latter word sometimes to be inserted incorrectly among the prepositions. Ex. “off (from) his horse.”



Parsing Exercises. — Model. — “John walks *on* the roof.” “*On*” is a preposition, it is placed before the noun “roof;” and it shows a relation between “roof,” and “walks,” it tells on what he walks.

Parse each of the Prepositions in the following sentences:

In the morning of a sunny Sabbath day, the village children, with happy faces, were on their way to the house of God. The sun that looked down from above upon them, the blue sky over them, and the flowery earth beneath their feet, were not more brilliant than the glance of their eyes. Hand in hand they went along the path leading to the church, with praise upon their tongues, and gratitude reigning within their hearts.

Review Exercise.—Parse each of the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, and Conjunctions in the foregoing sentences.



IX. INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *ah! oh!*

Note.—Interjection takes its name from the Latin *inter*, between, and *jacio*, to throw.

The principal Interjections are, *adieu, ah, aha, alack, alas, begone, ha, hail, halloo, hark, he, hist, ho, hum, hush, huzza, lo, O, oh, pshaw, see*, etc.

Some of the words usually called interjections are other parts of speech, and may be parsed accordingly; as, *behold*, a verb in the imperative; *strange!* an ellipsis for *it is strange*, etc. When the words are not resolvable in this way, but are mere exclamations (and these are the only true interjections), it seems doubtful whether they ought to be considered as a part of speech, any more than the barking of a dog or the mere noise of any other animal.



GENERAL PARSING EXERCISE.

Parse each of the words in the following sentences:

Benjamin West's aptitude for drawing, exhibited in his boyhood, was extraordinary. No restraint could check it. When, in later years, he was painting Death on the Pale Horse, Garrick the actor asked him "if he should die for him," meaning, "Shall I imitate a dying man?" "O! no," replied West, thinking apparently that Garrick wished to do him a great service, or intended to show a great affection for him or a great admiration of his genius, by actually dying.



WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

As, meaning *because*, or *since*, is a Conjunction. Ex. *As* the wind was favorable, we set sail. It is also a part of the Correlative Conjunction *as—so*, and of several Complex Conjunctions, *as well as*, etc.

As, in all other cases, is an Adverb.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Prepositions. Ex.:

Come *before* dinner.

Come *after* dinner.

Wait *till* midnight.

Wait *until* your turn.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when not followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Adverbs. Ex.:

Come *before* I have dined.

Come *after* I have dined.

Wait *till* I have dined.

Wait *until* I have dined.

BOTH is an Adjective, when it means *the two*. Ex. *Both* shoes need mending.

BOTH is a Conjunction in all other cases. Ex. I *both* love and respect him.

BUT is a Preposition, when it means *except*. Ex. He lost all his books *but* (except) his dictionary.

BUT is an Adverb, when it means *only*. Ex. I *but* (only) touched him and he cried.

BUT is a Conjunction in all other instances.

EITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *one of the two*. Ex. *Either* of the boys may do it.

EITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases.

NEITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *not one of the two*.

NEITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases.

FOR is a Conjunction, when it means *because*, and is used in giving a reason. Ex. I obey him, *for* he is my father, that is, because He is my father.

FOR is a Preposition in all other cases.

SINCE, meaning *for the reason that*, is a Conjunction. Ex. *Since* it is your wish, I will certainly do it.

SINCE, when placed before a noun denoting a period of time, is a Preposition. Ex. I have had no food *since* Monday.

SINCE, in other cases, is an Adverb.

THEN, meaning *in that case*, or *therefore*, is a Conjunction. Ex. If all this be so, *then* I am right.

THEN, in all other instances, is an Adverb.

THAT is a Relative Pronoun, when *who*, *whom*, or *which* may be used in its place. Ex. He is the wisest man *that* lives in our village.

THAT is a Demonstrative Adjective Pronoun, when *the* may be used instead of it. Ex. "*That* house which I see," means "*the* house which I see."

THAT is a Conjunction in all other cases. Ex. He wears warm clothes *that* he may not catch cold. Here, *who*, *whom*, *which*, or *the*, could not be used for *that*.

WHAT is a Relative Pronoun, when *that which* or *those which* can be used in its stead. Ex. Eat *what* is set before you. That is, Eat *that which* is set before you.

WHAT is an Interrogative Pronoun, when used to ask a question. Ex. *What* do you see?

WHAT is an Adjective Pronoun, when joined with a noun, but not asking a question. Ex. *What* wonders he performed. He gave *what* money he had to the poor.

WHAT, when uttered as a mere exclamation, and to denote surprise, is an Interjection. Ex. *What!* abuse your mother!

WHILE, meaning *to pass* or *spend* (time), is a Verb. Ex. They managed to *while* away the hour very pleasantly.

WHILE, meaning *a portion of time*, is a Noun. Ex. Let us sing *a while*.

WHILE, meaning *during the time that*, is an Adverb. Ex. The act was done *while* I was absent.

YET, meaning *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, is a Conjunction. Ex. Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.

YET, meaning *up to a certain time*, or *over and above*, is an Adverb. Ex. Has the boy come *yet*?

I will give you *yet* one more reason.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

By the Derivation of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

This part of Etymology has assumed so much importance as to become a separate branch of study, and several excellent works on the subject have been prepared. In like manner, the Spelling-Book and the Dictionary may be considered as having grown out of a particular branch of Orthography. In consequence of the existence of separate works on these points, they are passed over in Grammar more cursorily than they would otherwise be. Still it is not deemed expedient to pass them over altogether. As a few of the most important rules for Spelling were given, so a very brief summary will be presented of some of the most essential principles of Derivation.

A Primitive word is a word in its original form; as, *good*.

A Derivative word is a word formed from another by some change in its termination, or by the addition of some letters at the beginning or end of the word; as, *goodness*. When the additional letters make by themselves an entire word, the word formed is generally called a **compound**; as, *landlord*.

A letter or a syllable placed at the beginning of a word is called a **prefix**.

A letter or a syllable placed at the end of a word is called an **affix** or **suffix**.

The **PREFIXES** are generally prepositions, and belong to three principal classes, viz., the Saxon, the Latin, and the Greek.

I. PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

A signifies *on* or *in*; as, *ashore*, that is, *on shore*.

Be signifies *about*; as, *bestir*, that is, *stir about*; also, *for* or *before*; as, *bespeak*, that is, *to speak for or before*. It has also several other meanings.

For denies; as, *bid*, *forbid* (*bid not to do a thing*).

Fore signifies *before*; as, *see*, *foresee*.

Mis signifies *defect* or *error*; as, *take*, *mistake* (*take in a wrong way*).

Over denotes *superiority* or *excess*; as, *done*, *overdone* (*done to excess*).

Out signifies *excess* or *superiority*; as, *run*, *outrun*.

Un before an adjective signifies *not*; as, *worthy*, *unworthy*;

before a verb it signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb; as, tie, *untie*.

Up denotes *motion upward*; as, start, *upstart*; and also *subversion*; as, set, *upset*.

With signifies *against, from*; as, stand, *withstand*; draw, *withdraw*.

II. PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A (*ab* or *abs*) signifies *from* or *away*; as, *abstract*, to draw away.

Ad signifies *to, at*; as, *adjoin*, to join to (*Ad* assumes different forms according to the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed; as, *ascend, accede, affect, aggrrieve*, etc.).

Ambi from *ambo*, both, signifies *double*; as, *ambiguous* (having two meanings).

Ante signifies *before*; thus, *antediluvian*, before the flood.

Bene signifies *good, well*; as, *benevolent*, well disposed.

Bi or *bis* means *two* or *twice*; as, *bisect*, to cut into two parts.

Circum signifies *round, about*; as, *circumnavigate*, to sail round.

Cis signifies *on this side*; as, *cis-alpine*, on this side the Alps.

Con (*com, co, or col*) signifies *together*; as, *convoke*, to call together.

Contra (*counter, contro*) signifies *against*; as, *contradict*, to speak against; *counteract*, to act against.

De signifies *of, from, or down*; as, *dethrone*, to drive from the throne.

Di (*dis, dif*) signifies *asunder*; as, *distract*, to draw asunder. It also signifies *negation* or *undoing*; as, *disobey*, not to obey.

E (*ex*) signifies *out of*; as, *elect*, to choose out of.

Equi signifies *equal*; as, *equidistant*, at an equal distance.

Extra signifies *out of, beyond*; as, *extraordinary*, beyond the ordinary course.

In, before an adjective, serves as a negative; as, *active, inactive*; before a verb, *in* signifies *in* or *into*; as, *include*, to close in.

Inter signifies *between*; as, *intervene*, to come between.

Intro signifies *to, within*; as, *introduce*, to lead in.

Juxta signifies *nigh to*; as, *juxtaposition*, placed near to.

Mal or *male* (from *malus*, bad) signifies *ill* or *bad*; as, *malpractice*, bad practice.

Manu (from *manus*, a hand) signifies *with* or *by the hand*; as, *manuscript*, anything written by the hand.

! *Multi* signifies *many* ; as, *multiform*, having many forms.

Ob (*oc, of, o, op*) signifies *opposition* ; as, *obstacle*, something standing in *opposition*.

Omni signifies *all* ; as, *omnipotent*, all powerful.

Per signifies *through* or *thoroughly* ; as, *perfect*, thoroughly done, finished.

Post signifies *after* ; as, *postscript*, written after.

Præ or *pre* signifies *before* ; as, *prepaid*, paid before.

Pro signifies *forth* or *forwards* ; as, *promote*, to move forwards.

Præter or *preter* signifies *past* or *beyond* ; as, *preternatural*, beyond the course of nature.

Re signifies *again* or *back* ; as, *regain*, to gain back.

Retro signifies *backwards* ; as, *retrograde*, going backwards.

Se signifies *apart* or *without* ; as, *secrete*, to hide, to put aside.

Sine signifies *without* ; as, *sinecure*, without care or labor.

Sub signifies *under* ; as, *submarine*, under the sea.

Super signifies *above* or *over* ; as, *superscribe*, to write above or over.

Trans signifies *over, from one place to another* ; as, *transport*, to carry over.

III. PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN.

A or *an* signifies *privation* or *without* ; as, *anonymous*, without a name.

Amphi signifies *both* or *the two* ; as, *amphibious*, having two lives, or capable of living both on land and in water.

Ana signifies *through* or *up* ; as, *anatomy* (literally), a cutting up.

Anti (*ant*) signifies *against* ; as, *antichristian*, against Christianity ; *antarctic*, opposite the arctic.

Apo (*ap*) signifies *from* ; as, *apogee*, from the earth ; *aphelion*, from the sun.

Dia signifies *through* ; as, *diameter*, a measure through.

Epi signifies *upon* ; as, *epidemic*, upon or among the people.

Hyper signifies *over, above* ; as, *hypercritical*, over critical, too critical.

Hypo signifies *under*, implying *concealment* ; as, *hypocrite*, a person concealing his real character.

Meta signifies *change, transmutation* ; as, *metamorphosis*, a change of shape.

Mono signifies *single* ; as, *monosyllable*, a word of one syllable.

Para signifies *beyond, on one side* ; as, *paradox*, an opinion beyond or contrary to the general opinion.

Peri signifies *round or about* ; as, *perimeter*, a measure round.

Poly signifies *many* ; as, *polysyllable*, a word of many syllables.

Semi (*demi, hemi*) signifies *half* ; as, *semicircle*, half of a circle ; *hemisphere*, half of a sphere.

Syn (*sy, syl, sym*) signifies *with, together* ; as, *sympathy*, feeling with.

IV. AFFIXES.

The AFFIXES are very numerous, and cannot always be traced satisfactorily to their origin. They are generally classified according to their signification. The following are the principal classes.

1. Affixes denoting the *agent or doer* :

<i>an</i> , as in <i>guardian</i> .	<i>ent</i> , as in <i>adherent</i> .
<i>ant</i> , assistant.	<i>er</i> , baker.
<i>ar</i> , beggar.	<i>ist</i> , conformist.
<i>ard</i> , dotard.	<i>ive</i> , operative.
<i>ary</i> , adversary.	<i>or</i> , inspector.
<i>eer</i> , charioteer.	<i>ster</i> , punster.

2. Affixes denoting the person *acted upon* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>potentate</i> .	<i>ite</i> , as in <i>favorite</i> .
<i>ee</i> , assignee.	

3. Affixes denoting *being or state of being* :

<i>acy</i> , as in <i>piracy</i> .	<i>ment</i> , as in <i>achievement</i> .
<i>age</i> , bondage.	<i>mony</i> , acrimony.
<i>ance</i> , repentance.	<i>ness</i> , acuteness.
<i>ancy</i> , flagrancy.	<i>ry</i> , rivalry.
<i>ence</i> , adherence.	<i>ship</i> , friendship.
<i>ency</i> , emergency.	<i>th</i> , depth.
<i>hood</i> , boyhood.	<i>tude</i> , aptitude.
<i>ion</i> , exhaustion.	<i>ty</i> , loyalty.
<i>ism</i> , despotism.	<i>ure</i> , disclosure.

4. Affixes denoting *jurisdiction* :

<i>dom</i> , as in <i>kingdom</i> .	<i>ric</i> , as in <i>bishopric</i> .
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5. Affixes denoting *diminution* :

<i>cle</i> , as in <i>corpuscle</i> .	<i>ling</i> , as in <i>duckling</i> .
<i>kin</i> , lambkin.	<i>ock</i> , hillock.
<i>let</i> , streamlet.	

6. Affixes denoting *of* or *pertaining to* :

<i>ac</i> , as in <i>elegiac</i> .	<i>ic</i> , as in <i>angelic</i> .
<i>al</i> , autumnal.	<i>ical</i> , canonical.
<i>an</i> , republican.	<i>ile</i> , infantile.
<i>ar</i> , consular.	<i>ine</i> , adamantine.
<i>ary</i> , momentary.	<i>ory</i> , expiatory.
<i>en</i> , wooden.	

7. Affixes denoting *full of* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>affectionate</i> .	<i>ous</i> , as in <i>hazardous</i> .
<i>ful</i> , hopeful.	<i>some</i> , gladsome.
<i>ose</i> , globose.	<i>y</i> , pithy.

8. Affixes denoting *capacity* :

<i>ive</i> , as in <i>communicative</i> .	<i>ible</i> , as in <i>contemptible</i> .
<i>able</i> , profitable.	

9. Affixes denoting *to make* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>alienate</i> .	<i>ize</i> , as in <i>epitomize</i> .
<i>en</i> , brighten.	<i>ize</i> , methodize.
<i>fy</i> , justify.	

10. *Miscellaneous* affixes :

<i>like</i> signifies likeness, as in	<i>saintlike</i> .
<i>ly</i> " " "	<i>maidenly</i> .
<i>ish</i> " small degree of anything, as in	<i>blackish</i> .
<i>less</i> " negation,	" <i>artless</i> .
<i>ward</i> " in the direction of,	" <i>homeward</i> .





THIRD PART.

THE third part of Grammar treats of SENTENCES.

It is divided into two parts, Syntax and Analysis.

Syntax treats of putting words together into sentences.

Analysis treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

I. SYNTAX.

General Observations.

A Sentence is a number of words put together so as to make complete sense ; as, *Man is mortal*.

The principal parts of a sentence are the *Subject* (or nominative) and the *Predicate* (or verb).

A Phrase is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a finite verb, and not making by themselves complete sense.

A Clause is a number of words, connected in meaning, and containing a verb with its subject, and so making by themselves complete sense, but not independent, being used to modify some other word.

A Simple sentence is one which contains but one subject and one finite verb ; as, *Life is short.*

A Complex sentence is one which contains a simple sentence, with one or more clauses modifying either its subject or its verb ; as, *A life which is spent in doing good cannot be a failure.*

A Compound sentence is one which contains two or more sentences, whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions ; as, *Life is short, but art is long.*

The sentences which compose a compound sentence are called its **Members**.

For a fuller Analysis of the English Sentence, see the Chapter with this title at the close of Syntax.

Order of the Rules in Syntax.

In the old grammars, Syntax was divided into Concord and Government. By Concord was meant the agreement of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person. By Government was meant the power which one word had of determining the mood, tense, or case of another. The rules of Syntax were then classified and arranged according to this division. To adhere to such a division, however, occasions many serious inconveniences. Subjects intimately connected in every other respect are often widely sundered because of their difference in this one unimportant particular. By the same arbitrary arrangement, rules of essential importance, which the pupil must know before he can make any progress in parsing, are thrown far forward in the book, quite beyond his reach, except by wading through a mass of rules which he is not yet qualified to comprehend.

The more recent grammarians, therefore, very wisely cease to insist upon this distribution, and practically adopt that which arises naturally from the analysis of a simple sentence. The agreement of the verb with its subject, and the government of the objective case demand the immediate attention of the pupil, at the very threshold of syntax. As soon as he has learned to resolve simple sentences, he is prepared for those which are more complex. This complexity arises either from the combination of several simple sentences into one, or from connecting various adjuncts with the principal parts of a sentence. Thus, the adjective is connected with the noun, the adverb with the verb or adjective, pronouns with their antecedents, etc. In this manner, the various leading rules arise nearly in the order in which they are wanted by the pupil, while under each leading rule are given all the exceptions and subsidiary rules naturally connected with the subject.

RULE I. •

THE SUBJECT OF A VERB MUST BE IN THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

Explanation.—The subject of the verb is that of which the assertion is made. “The book is in the desk.” The subject of the assertion here is “book.” It is that which is asserted to be in the desk. “John and I went home.” Here there are two subjects, “John” and “I.” It is of both these we say that they “went home.” Now, the subject of the verb, that of which anything is asserted, must be in the nominative case. It would be contrary to the Rule, therefore, to say, “John and *me* went home,” because “*me*,” one of the subjects, is not in the nominative case.

NOTES.

1. Complex names, such as George Washington, Charles Henry Grant, etc., should be taken together in parsing, as if they were one word. Thus, we would say, “Charles Henry Grant” is a noun, etc.

2. The subject of the verb may be an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, taken as a noun; as, “To behave properly will gain for us a good name,” “Thou shalt not kill, is the sixth commandment.” In the former of these examples, “To behave” is the subject of the verb, just as “behavior” would be, if the sentence were written, “Proper behavior will gain for us a good name.”

3. A noun or a pronoun addressed, and not the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Independent**; as, “Father, forgive them.” In many languages, this construction forms a distinct case, called the Vocative.

4. A noun or a pronoun put before a participle as its subject, and not being the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Absolute**; as, “My father dying, I was left an orphan.”

5. In the construction called the Case Absolute, the noun or pronoun is the subject of the participle; and the two words taken together form a dependent clause equivalent to a subject and a verb, preceded by a conjunction and an adverb. Thus, “Whose grey top shall tremble, he descending;” that is, “*when* he descends.”

The case absolute, in almost all languages except the English, is some other than the nominative. Thus, in the Saxon it is the dative, in the Latin it is the ablative, in the Greek, and in most of the Oriental languages, it is the genitive.

6. The noun or pronoun in absolute clauses is often omitted. Thus, in the sentence, "Generally speaking, labor is not without its reward," "speaking" is put absolutely with *we*, *men*, or some other word of the kind, understood.

7. The rule for the construction of absolute clauses is violated by putting the subject of the participle in any other case than the nominative. As the nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike, no false syntax can occur under this rule except in pronouns. "*Him* (he) dying, I was left an orphan."

8. Every nominative case, except the case independent, the case absolute, the case of apposition, and the nominative after an intransitive verb, should be the subject of some verb expressed or understood.

9. A noun and its pronoun should not be put as subjects to the same verb; as, "The *day*, *it* is clear."

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"*James* writes a letter." "*James*" is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, in the singular number, third person, and nominative case, subject of the verb "writes," according to Rule I., which says, "The subject of the verb must be in the nominative case."

"*He* will write a letter." "*He*" is a personal pronoun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and nom. case, subject of the verb "will write," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

N. B.—In parsing pronouns, certain other things are to be said, which will be learned under Rule VIII. The parsing in the model is complete, so far as it can be given now.

"To behave properly will gain for us a good name." "To behave" is a verb in the infinitive mood, used as a noun, and is the subject of the verb "will gain," according to Note 2, Rule I. (Quote the Note.)

"Father, forgive them." "Father" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 2d p., and in the nominative case independent, according to Note 3, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

"The sash falling suddenly, his finger was crushed." "Sash" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the nominative case absolute before the participle "falling," according to Note 4, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Him and her are of the same age." Ans. *Him* and *her* are here in the objective case. They should be in the nominative, because they are the subjects of the verb *are*, and should read *he* and *she*, according to Rule I. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "Solomon was the wisest of men, *him* only excepted who spake as never man spake!" "Him" is here in the objective case. It should be in the nominative, because it is placed absolutely with "excepted," and should read "*he* only excepted," according to Note 4, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The man, he is rich." *He* is superfluous, because it is not needed as the subject of any verb. The sentence should read, "The man is rich," according to Note 9, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Exercises.

Parse all the Subjects in the following sentences, correcting wherever necessary :

Virtue ennobles the mind, vice debases it.

London is on the Thames.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Him and I could not agree.

They and us agreed to do it.

You and them had a long dispute.

Thomas and me learned the lesson together.

To see the sun is pleasant.

To cultivate the ground gives pleasant occupation.

Whence and what art thou, execrable shape?

Show pity, Lord ; O, Lord, forgive.

Oh what a fall was there, my countrymen !

His disease being thoroughly cured, and the busy season having commenced, he should have been at his post.

Napoleon being banished, peace was restored to Europe.

Napoleon, having raised a large army, crossed the Alps.

His character, viewing it in the most charitable manner, is full of blemishes.

Them descending, the ladder fell.

Whom being dead, the hostility ceased.

Him excepted, John was the worst of the party.

This truth, if it had been attended to, the parties would have escaped a great deal of trouble.



RULE II.

A VERB AGREES WITH ITS SUBJECT IN NUMBER AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. Rule II. is violated by putting the verb in any other number or person than its subject; as, "They *was* present."

2. In the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Potential moods, every verb should have a subject expressed, except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction.

3. A verb in the Infinitive mood has no subject or nominative.

In this respect the English differs from the classical and many other languages, in which the infinitive very commonly has a subject like the other moods, but is distinguished by this peculiarity, that the subject is not in the nominative, but in the accusative or objective.

4. In the Imperative mood, the subject or nominative is generally omitted, *thou* or *you* being understood.

5. When the subject or nominative of the verb is an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, the verb should be singular; as, "To see the sun is pleasant," "Thou shalt not kill, is a divine command." But if there are two or more infinitives, or clauses, making distinct subjects, then the verb should be plural; as, "To skate and to play cricket are healthful amusements," "Thou shalt not kill, and Thou shalt not steal, are divine commands."

6. When a verb has for its subject a collective noun in the singular, expressing unity of idea, the verb should be singular; as, "The class is large." But, whenever such subject

expresses plurality of idea, the verb should be plural; as, "The multitude *pursue* pleasure as their chief good."

7. Some nouns, which are not considered nouns of multitude, are frequently used in the singular form, with a plural meaning; as, "Ten *sail* of the line *were* seen off the coast." In such cases the verb should be plural.

8. "It," used indefinitely before a verb which has a nominative case after it, is the subject of that verb, and the verb agrees with it, and not with the other nominative; thus, "It is I," not "It am I;" "It is they," not "It are they."

9. Two or more subjects connected by *and*, expressed or understood, require a verb in the plural; as, "Socrates and Plato *were* wise." The verb in such cases should be plural, because the assertion is made of all the subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns and pronouns, representing such subjects should be plural; as, "Filthiness and bad food are *sources* of disease," not "a source," etc.

10. Two or more subjects, connected by *and*, if used to express only one person or thing, require a verb in the singular; as, "That eminent statesman and orator *is* dead."

11. When singular subjects, though connected by *and*, belong to separate propositions, they have a singular verb; as, "The wine, and not the bottle, was used." Subjects connected by *and* belong to separate propositions, when accompanied by *each*, *every*, *no*, *not*, or some other disuniting word; as, "*Every* house, *every* grove was burnt," "Good order, and *not* mean savings, produces profits." In the former sentence, the meaning is, "Every house was burnt, and every grove was burnt." In the latter, "Good order produces profits, and mean savings do not."

12. Two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular; as, "Ignorance *or* prejudice *has* caused the mistake." The verb in such cases should be singular, because the assertion is true of only one of these subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns or pronouns, representing such subjects, should be singular.

13. If any one of several subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural; as, "Either he or they *were* mistaken."

14. When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *and*, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the

second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "He and I shared the peach between *us*." "Shared," here, should be parsed as in the first person.

15, When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the subject nearest to it; as, "Either thou or I *am* mistaken."

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"James *writes* a letter." "Writes" is a transitive verb, irregular (Pres. write, Past, wrote, Past P. written), active voice, indicative mood, present tense, and is in the singular number, third person, to agree with its subject "James," according to Rule II. (Quote the Rule.)

"To play in the mud *soils* the clothes." "Soils" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., to agree with the verb "to play" in the infinitive mood used as a noun, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Thou shalt not steal, is the eighth commandment." "Is" is an int. v., irr., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., sing. n., to agree with its subject, "Thou shalt not steal," a part of a sentence used as a noun, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"The class *recite* well." "Recite" is an intrans. verb., reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., to agree with its subject "class," a collective noun expressing a plural idea, according to Note 6, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Socrates and Plato *were* wise." "Were" is an intrans. verb, irr., ind. m., past t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., because it has two subjects, "Socrates" and "Plato," connected by "and," according to Note 9, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"If that skilful painter and glazier *is* in town, be sure to employ him." "Is" is an intrans. verb, irr., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, "painter" and "glazier," express only one person, according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Ignorance or prejudice *has caused* the mistake." "Has caused" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres.-p. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, "ignorance" and "prejudice," are in the singular, connected by *or*, according to Note 12, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"He and I *shared* the peach between us." "Shared" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., past t., in the pl. n., according to Note 9, Rule II. (quote Note), and in the 1st p., according to Note 14, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "I loves study." Ans. "Loves" is in the third person. It should be in the first person, to agree with its subject, "I," and should read, "I *love* study," according to Rule II. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "The days of man is but as grass." Ans. "Is" is singular. It should be plural, because its subject, "days," is plural. The sentence should read, "The days of man *are* but as grass," according to Rule II. (Quote Rule.)

Correct the sentence, "Dear Sir: Have just received your letter." Ans. "Have received" is a verb in the indicative mood, without any subject expressed. It should read, "*I* have received," according to Note 2, under Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "To play in the mud, and to walk through the wet grass, soils the clothes." Ans. "Soils" is singular. It should be plural, and should read "soil," because it has for its subject two infinitives, "to play" and "to walk," making two distinct subjects, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The people has no opinion of their own." Ans. "Has" is singular. It should be plural, because it has for its subject "people," a collective noun expressing plurality of idea, and it should read, "The people *have* no opinion," according to Note 6, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Life and death is in the power of the tongue." Ans. "Is" is singular. It should be plural, because it has two subjects connected by "and," and should read, "Life and death *are*," etc., according to Note 9, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "That distinguished poet, orator, and scholar are dead." Ans. "Are" is plural. It should be "*is*" (singular), because the subjects "poet," "orator," and "scholar," though connected by "and," express only one person, and should read, "*is* dead," according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example." Ans. "Are" is plural. It should be singular, because it has two singular subjects connected by *nor*, and should read, "Neither precept nor discipline *is*," etc., according to Note 12, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Either I or thou am greatly mistaken."
 Ans. "Am" is first person. It should be second person, to agree with the nearest subject "thou," and should read, "Either I or thou *art* greatly mistaken," according to Note 15, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Exercises.

Parse the Verbs and Subjects in the following sentences, correcting where necessary :

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.

A soft answer turn away wrath.

Our most sanguine prospects has often been blasted.

The number of our days are with thee.

A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement.

Constant perseverance in the path of virtue will gain respect.

There was no memoranda kept of the sales.

The number of the inhabitants amount to one million.

Have a sufficient quantity of oats been given to the horse?

Sufficient data was not given, and the solution of the problems were impossible.

Between grammar and logic there exists many connections.

Many means was employed, but no one means were found efficient.

Trout was found in abundance.

"Oats" are a common noun, of the neuter gender, plural number, and are governed by the preposition "of."

His clothes is torn.

DEAR SIR : — Have just received your letter of yesterday. Am sorry to hear that the stereotype plates are sold. Hope to have better luck next time. On the whole, think have not quite lost all chances of them yet. Very truly yours, etc.

To encourage virtuous actions are praiseworthy.

To love God and keep his commandments, are the whole duty of man.

To eat with unwashed hands, to drink wine, and to eat the flesh of certain animals, is forbidden by the Koran.

Thou shalt love the Lord thy God, is the first and great commandment.

Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread.

Some people is busy and yet does very little.

Cavalry is not furnished with knapsacks.

The gang contain all the idle and vicious boys of the village.
Congress have adjourned.

The youth of this country is well educated.

The Board of Health have forbidden the vessel to enter the
port.

It is the boys of whom I complain.

The sacred Scriptures should be read by all.

The smiles of the mob is easily gained.

Four pair of ducks was brought into the market.

Twenty head of sheep was grazing on the hill.

The time and the place for the conference was agreed upon.

Idleness and ignorance brings sorrow.

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

Prosperity and adversity is sent to us for wise purposes.

The abuse of wine, not its use, make it a curse.

My brother with two friends have arrived.

Nothing but the flag and flagstaff was visible.

A strong argument, and not a loud voice, bring conviction.

Food, and no water, are not sufficient to support life.

There was a man and a woman found dead, who were natives
of England.

Every city, town, and village were depopulated.

There seems to be war, famine, and disease at this time on the
earth.

On the tomb is this inscription: "Here lies a statesman and
philosopher."

Our parlor and sitting-room were the front room in the second
story.

His bread and butter depends upon his exertions.

The house in which I was born, my boyhood's happy home,
and the abode of all those whom I hold dear, are now crumbling
to dust.

The flute or the piano, when skilfully played, produce delight-
ful music; but the sound of a drum, or the squeaking of the fife,
are discordant.

Neither the secretaries nor the president was to be blamed.

To read or to write were equally difficult to him.

Out of his mouth come neither profanity nor obscenity.

Neither the laws nor the Constitution is sufficient to insure perfect order in the community.

Neither the captain, nor the passengers, nor any of the crew was saved.

In him were found neither deceit, nor any other vice.

Here no longer does my wife or children sit at evening. Neither my house, nor she who was its chief attraction, have been spared by the destroyer, time.

Has not his ignorance or bad manners made him the scorn of everybody?



RULE III.

A TRANSITIVE VERB, IN THE ACTIVE VOICE, REQUIRES AN OBJECT IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

Note. — The noun or pronoun in the objective is said to be *governed* by the verb.

NOTES.

1. Rule III. is violated in four ways, namely: 1. By putting the object of the verb in any other case than the objective; as, She asked him and *I* (me) to do it. 2. By using a transitive verb in the active voice without an object; as, He ingratiates (himself) with people. 3. By inserting a preposition between the verb and its object; as, I shall premise (with) a few observations. 4. By using an objective with a verb that is not transitive; as, I lie *me* down to sleep.

2. A participle of a Transitive verb, in the Active voice, requires an object in the objective case; as, "The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick."

3. The Relative Pronoun, when in the objective case, generally precedes the verb by which it is governed; as, "The book *which* you see is mine." Here, "*which*" is the object of the verb "see," and is placed before it.

4. The verb *to teach* and some few others retain the object in the objective case, even in the passive voice.

In explaining this construction, which is somewhat peculiar in English, though common in Latin, it is necessary to revert to the distinction between the direct and the indirect object of a verb. "He gives the book to me." "Book" is the direct object, "me" is the indirect object. In changing the expression to the passive, the direct object becomes nominative. "The book is given to me." Now, in the case of the verb "to teach," and of some few others, in changing to the passive, the direct object remains in the objective, and the indirect object becomes nominative. Active: "He taught grammar (direct object) to me" (indirect). Passive: "I was taught grammar" (direct object). The following are some additional examples of this construction: "I was asked a question," "I was denied the privilege," "I was offered a place in the custom-house."

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"James writes a *letter*." "Letter" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and is in the obj. c., governed by "writes," a transitive verb in the active voice, according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick." "Fruit" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by the participle "having eaten," according to Note 2, Rule III. (Quote Note.)

"James called *him*." "Him" is a pers. pronoun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by "called," a trans. v. in the act. v., according to Rule III. (Quote.)

Note.—The parsing of the Pronoun here is complete as far as it goes. But there are other things to be learned concerning it under Rule VIII., before it can be entirely complete.

"He and they we know, but who art thou?" "He" and "they" should be in the objective case, because they are the object of the verb "know." The sentence should be, "Him and them we know," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"He ingratiates with some by traducing others." "Ingratiates," a transitive verb, should not be used without an object. Insert "himself." "He ingratiates himself with some."

"I shall premise with a few general observations." The preposition "with" should not be inserted between the transitive verb "premise" and its object "observations." Omit "with." "I shall premise a few general observations."

"I lie me down to sleep." "Lie," an intransitive verb, should not have an object "me." Either change "lie" to "lay," or omit "me." "I lay me down to sleep," or "I lie down to sleep."

Exercises.

Parse the Objectives which are the objects of verbs, in the following sentences, correcting where necessary :

She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

The sailors, while exploring the island, found trees bearing delicious fruit. Having eaten a quantity of this fruit, and rested their weary limbs, they continued their journey.

Devotion strengthens virtue.

We ought to disengage from the world by degrees.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Repenting him of his design, he returned to his home.

Application in early life will give ease in old age.

He who committed the offence, thou shouldst punish, not I who am innocent.

It is difficult to agree his conduct with the principles which he professes.

Perseverance in labor will surmount every difficulty.

Wrong acts he suffers with patience.

The child chased after the butterfly.

The waters of the Mississippi flow into the Gulf of Mexico.

The fountains of the great deep were broken up.

Anger inflamed him with rage.

The time fixed for the celebration has long since passed.

The fact mentioned in your letter has, I am sorry to say, escaped my memory.

Cave canem, translated into English, means "Beware the dog."

"Slow and steady often out-travels haste."

"All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy."

"Chiefs, sages, heroes, bards, and seers,
That live in story and in song,
Time, for the last two thousand years,
Has raised, and shown, and swept along."

Review.

Parse all the Subjects in the foregoing sentences, and all the Verbs except those in the Infinitive mood.

RULE IV.

A PREPOSITION REQUIRES AN OBJECT IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

Note.—The noun or pronoun in the objective after a preposition is said to be *governed* by it.

NOTES.

1. A Preposition is generally placed before the word which it governs; as, "He came *to* town."

2. *That*, when used as a relative pronoun, always precedes the preposition by which it is governed; as, "Every book *that* you have referred *to*, is mine." Here "*that*" is governed by the preposition "*to*," and precedes it. If we were to use "*which*" here instead of "*that*," the arrangement would be different; thus, "Every book *to which* you have referred, is mine."

3. *Whom* and *which* sometimes precede the preposition; as, "The person *whom* I travelled *with*." This mode of construction is generally considered inelegant, especially where the preposition is separated some distance from the word which it governs. The sentence just quoted would read better thus: "The person with whom I travelled."

4. The preposition and the word governed by it should be placed as near as possible to the preceding word to which they relate; as, "He was reading in a low voice, when I entered." This is better than saying, "He was reading, when I entered, in a low voice." The words "in a low voice," relate to the act of "reading," and should not unnecessarily be separated from it.

5. Sometimes, in law papers, and other documents of a formal nature, two prepositions govern jointly the same word; as, "He is related *to*, and governed *by*, the same person." Such constructions in other kinds of writing should be avoided. The sentence may run thus: "He is related to the same person, and is governed by him."

6. It is a very objectionable mode of construction to make the same word governed jointly by a transitive verb and a preposition; as, "He was warned *of*, and urged *to avoid*, the danger." It should be, "He was warned of the danger, and urged to avoid it."

7. When a preposition is followed by an adjective without a noun, supply the noun, and parse the preposition accordingly; as, "Keep to the right (hand)."

8. The preposition is frequently omitted, particularly after verbs of *giving* and *procuring*; after adjectives of *likeness* or *nearness*; and before nouns denoting *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, etc. When it is practicable to supply the ellipsis, the noun or pronoun is parsed as in the objective, governed by the preposition thus supplied. But when no such word can be supplied, we say the noun is in the objective, expressing *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, etc., without any governing word. Examples: Give (to) me a book. Get (for) me an apple. Like (to) his father. Near (to) his home. They travelled (through) sixty miles (in) a day. A wall six feet high. Subjects worthy (of) fame. Books worth (worthy of?) a dollar.

The last example cited above is somewhat disputed and not very clear. "Worth" appears to be an adjective, because it evidently qualifies the noun, and may itself be qualified by an adverb; as, "He had a wife *well* worth the confidence which he placed in her." Here, "well" qualifies worth, and "worth" qualifies wife, just as clearly as if it were "worthy." The construction, too, seems precisely analogous to the following: "This deed is no more worthy (of) heaven, than thou art worthy (of) her." As in the latter case there is an evident ellipsis of the preposition, the most natural solution of the former seems to be to say, that "of" is omitted, and that "worth," by an anomalous usage, is employed in the sense of "worthy," and is an adjective.

There is another use of "worth," entirely distinct from the foregoing. In the phrase, "Wo worth the chase," etc., it is agreed universally that "worth" is the Saxon Imperative of the verb *weorthan*, meaning simply *be to*, or *betide*, "Wo *be* (to) the chase," "Wo *betide* the chase," etc.

9. Formerly, the preposition *for* was used before the infinitive mood; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?" This is not allowable now.

10. Sometimes one preposition immediately precedes another; as, "*From before* the altar." The two prepositions in such cases should be considered as one, just as in the case of the compound prepositions *upon*, *within*, etc.

11. Sometimes a preposition precedes an adverb; as, *at once*, *for ever*, etc. The two words should be taken together, as in the preceding case, and called an adverb.

12. *At* and *to*. *At* is used after a verb of rest; as, "He resides at Madrid." *To* is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went to Madrid."

13. *Between* and *among*. *Between* refers to two objects, *among* to more than two; as, "There is no difference of opinion between the President and the Vice-President (two), although there is among the members of the Cabinet generally (more than two)."

14. Words followed by appropriate prepositions.

Absent <i>from</i> .	{ Attribute <i>to</i> (verb).
Access <i>to</i> .	{ Attribute <i>of</i> (noun).
Accused <i>of</i> .	{ Diminished <i>from</i> (a verb).
Acquit <i>of</i> .	{ Diminution <i>of</i> (a noun).
Adapt <i>to</i> .	Betray <i>to</i> a person.
Affection <i>for</i> .	" <i>into</i> a thing.
Alienate <i>from</i> .	Call <i>on</i> a person.
Alliance <i>with</i> .	" <i>at</i> a house.
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	" <i>for</i> a thing.
Comply <i>with</i> .	Confide <i>to</i> (transitive).
Consonant <i>with</i> .	" <i>in</i> (intransitive).
Depend <i>upon</i> .	Accord <i>to</i> (transitive).
Dissent <i>from</i> .	" <i>with</i> (intransitive).
Made <i>of</i> .	Compare <i>to</i> (for illustration).
Martyr <i>for</i> .	" <i>with</i> (for quality).
Need <i>of</i> .	Copy <i>from</i> nature.
True <i>to</i> .	" <i>after</i> a parent.
{ Agent charged <i>with</i> a thing.	Defend others <i>from</i> .
{ Thing charged <i>on</i> an agent.	" ourselves <i>against</i> .
{ Avert <i>from</i> (verb).	Die <i>of</i> a disease.
{ Averse <i>to</i> (adjective).	" <i>by</i> a sword.
Differ <i>with</i> a person in opinion.	Reconcile a person <i>to</i> .
" <i>from</i> him in character.	" a thing <i>with</i> .
Agree <i>with</i> a person.	Taste <i>of</i> (actual enjoyment).
" <i>to</i> a thing.	" <i>for</i> (capacity for enjoying).

Many words derived from the Latin and Greek are compounded with a preposition. Some writers are disposed in such cases to adopt the classical usage, and make the following preposition correspond to the one found in the compound; as, "averse from," "depend from," etc. This is not according to the idiom of the language, which requires a preposition corresponding to the actual, present meaning of the whole word, and not to the

original meaning of its constituent parts. "Averse" meant, originally, "turned from;" it now means "opposed," "disinclined," and should be followed by "to." "Depend" meant, originally, "hang down from;" it now means "rely upon," "lean upon," etc.

The usages of the language in regard to the prepositions are exceedingly various, and cannot be fully enumerated in an elementary work like the present. The more advanced student, who wishes to be accurate in this particular, should have by him some work of reference of standard authority, containing ample quotations from the best authors. The list in the text contains a few of the most common of these usages.

Models for Parsing.

"James writes a letter to his *father*." "Father" is a common noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d. p., and in the obj. c., governed by the preposition "to," according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"To" is a preposition, showing the relation between "writes" and "father," and governs "father" in the obj. c., according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"God seeth *in secret*." "In" is a preposition, showing the relation between "seeth" and "places," or some such noun understood. The meaning is, "God seeth in secret places."

Exercises.

Parse the Prepositions, and the Nouns or Pronouns governed by them, in the following sentences, and correcting the sentences where necessary:

Indolence undermines the foundation of virtue, and unfits a man for the duties of life.

Between you and I, he has no scholarship to boast of.

God, in whom I trust, will protect me.

Confide to real friends only; confide nothing in him who has once deceived you.

If I compare my penmanship to yours, mine will suffer by the comparison.

Newton, in order to show how little he had accomplished, compared himself with a child picking pebbles on the sea-shore.

The Indian differs with the Caucasian in color.

I differ from you on this point.

Who did you receive that intelligence from?

The book, which the story is printed in, is full of pictures.

The delay in the printing renders the progress very slow of the work.

Beyond this period, the arts cannot be traced of civil society.
He is unacquainted with, and cannot speak upon, the subject.
He dwelt upon, and strongly urged, your claims.

I received, but had not time to reply to, your letter.

The book is like its author.

The fountain is near the city.

His mother bought him a top.

The next day they set out early in the morning, and travelled twenty miles.

His health he little thought of.

There is a room in the second story suitable for a single gentleman with a fireplace.

He was talking, while his class were quietly studying, in a loud voice, when his teacher entered, and chastised him, with noiseless steps.

Who did you inquire of, at the house which you were sent to, and what did they complain of?

He approved of and voted for this measure.

I have noticed of late that the sky above and the earth beneath wear an appearance of gloom.

I sought in vain for a cheerful spot, and at last gave up in despair.

From within, a foul stench arose; but from without, the sepulchre was fair and comely.

I will take her for better, for worse.

He addresses himself to the loyal.

Though he was a child only five years old, he showed grown men an example worthy their imitation.

Next her brother, stood a little girl, who asked the boy opposite her place, to lend her his book, but he churlishly refused her this simple request.

The thermometer was two degrees below zero.

He was sent home two weeks sooner than the usual time.

Among a brother and a sister no strife should arise.

Between the many religious sects he was unable to find one suited to his notions of religion.

The army will remain in Washington for a day and then march at the nearest point of attack.

He divided his estate between his wife, his son, and his daughter.

His actions do not accord to his preaching; we cannot accord our support with him.

It was difficult to reconcile the mother with the loss of her child; she could not reconcile such an affliction to the goodness of God.

Review.

Parse all the objects of Verbs in the foregoing sentences.

Parse all the Verbs (except those in the infinitive), and all the Subjects.



RULE V.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE IS DEPENDENT UPON THE NOUN SIGNIFYING THE THING POSSESSED.

Note.—The noun or pronoun in the possessive is said to be *governed* by the noun signifying the thing possessed.

NOTES.

1. The possessive case is not the only way in which the idea of possession may be expressed. A very common mode of expressing this idea is by using the preposition *of*. Thus, "The house of my father," and "My father's house," express equally the idea of possession. In substituting one of these modes of expression for the other, care should be taken to see that the two expressions mean the same thing. In the expression, "The House of Representatives," "of" does not convey the idea of *possession*, but of *composition*. It means the House or Assembly composed of Representatives.

2. The noun governing the possessive case is often omitted; as, "I bought this slate at the bookseller's [shop]." In such cases, supply the omission, and parse according to the general rule.

3. In consequence of ellipsis, there is sometimes an appearance

of a double possessive; as, "This is a speech of the king's [speeches]." Here, "of" does not denote possession. The meaning is, "This speech is *one of* the king's speeches." In all such instances, the preposition governs the noun understood, and the noun understood governs the possessive.

4. The two modes of expression, "A picture of the king," and "A picture of the king's," never mean the same thing. The noun understood in the latter case is always plural, and the idea is always that of possession. The phrase, "A picture of the king's," implies that this is one out of many pictures, and that they belong to the king. But, in the phrase, "A picture of the king," no intimation is given of a plurality of pictures, and the idea of possession is not necessarily, if ever, conveyed.

5. In complex names and in complex titles, the sign of the possessive is put only at the end, and the whole complex name, or title, is parsed as one word. Thus, "George Washington's farewell address," not "George's Washington's," etc.

6. A complex title sometimes consists of several words, some of which may be different parts of speech, and may have an independent construction of their own; thus, "The captain of the guard's horse was slain." In parsing such a sentence, "of the guard" should be parsed first, each word separately, "guard" being in the objective. Then, "captain of the guard's" should be parsed as one complex name, in the possessive case, governed by "horse." The *'s* belongs not to "guard," but to the whole expression. These complex titles are sometimes written with a hyphen, as, "commander-in-chief."

7. Where complex titles are used, the idea of possession may be conveyed by using "of," "belonging to," or something similar. This mode of expression in such cases is generally to be preferred to the use of *'s*. Thus, "The horse belonging to the captain of the guard was slain."

8. When two or more nouns are connected in the possessive, expressing joint possession, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to the last only; as, "The king and queen's marriage." "King" here is to be parsed as the possessive, with the sign of the possessive omitted. If, however, several words intervene between the nouns so connected, the sign of the possessive should not be omitted; as, "It was my father's, and also my mother's wish."

9. The sign of the possessive should not be omitted when separate, instead of joint possession is expressed; as, "Washington's and Cornwallis's troops approached each other."

10. When a noun or a pronoun in the possessive has one or more nouns in apposition, the sign of the possessive is often omitted after the noun or nouns in apposition; as, "For David thy father's sake." Here, "David" is parsed as in apposition with "father," and in the possessive, with the sign of possession omitted. "Here lies *his* head, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown." "Youth," here, is in the possessive (the sign of the possessive being omitted), and is in apposition with "his." The meaning is, "The head of him, a youth," etc.

11. Care should be taken not to separate the possessive from the governing word by inserting explanatory clauses; as, "She extolled the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." In such cases, the idea of possession should be expressed by "of," or in some similar way. Thus, "She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

12. Certain compound pronouns in the possessive case are sometimes separated; as, "*Whose* house *soever*." This, however, is to be generally avoided.

13. The possessive is sometimes governed by a participle used as a noun; as, "The cause of John's forgetting the lesson was his anxiety about the excursion." Here, "John's" is in the possessive case, governed by "forgetting" used as a noun. It would not be correct to put "John" in the objective case governed by "of." "Of," here, governs "forgetting," not "John." "The cause of *John* forgetting the lesson," should be, "The cause of *John's* forgetting the lesson." "The cause of *him* not doing it," should be, "The cause of *his* not doing it."

Models for Parsing.

"James writes a letter by his *father's* permission." "Father's" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the poss. c., governed by "permission," according to Rule V. (Quote.)

"George Washington's Farewell Address has just been read." "George Washington's," a complex name, is a prop. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., poss. c., governed by "Address," according to Rule V. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse all the Nouns and Pronouns in the possessive case, in the following sentences, correcting the sentences wherever necessary :

A man's manners often make his fortune.

Asa's heart was perfect in the Lord's sight.

Helen's beauty caused the destruction of Troy.

The Representatives' House adjourned on the fifth of June.

The Lord's day will come as a thief in the night.

This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.

The Archbishop of Baltimore's letter was published in the daily papers.

William and Mary's reign was one of the most distinguished in English history.

John and Mary's bookcase is filled, partly with his books, and partly with hers.

John's and Mary's bookcases are both filled with books.

William and Lucy's cloaks were lost.

The Princeton and the Raritan's crews are now both complete.

If he learn any trade, it should be his father's.

He was tried at the magistrate's for stealing a parcel of rings at the jeweller's.

The painting of Christ Healing the Sick is a picture of West.

There are many pictures of Washington's on tavern signs.

The farewell address of Washington's was read on the anniversary of his death.

It was the Sergeant-at-arms's duty to execute the Speaker of the House of Representatives' order.

The Archbishop of Canterbury's opinion was preferred to the Archbishop of York's.

Men and women's shoes are made very differently.

Return for thy servants' sake, the people of thine inheritance.

He took it out of Elishama the scribe's chamber.

For Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife.

The captain and the lieutenant's swords were much alike in appearance.

Scott's and Butler's store was destroyed by the fire, and all the goods belonging to the firm were burned.

No one ever doubted Mad Anthony's, as he was called, bravery and skill.

Review.

Parse all the Subjects in the foregoing sentences.

Parse the objects of all the Verbs and Prepositions.

Parse all the Prepositions.

Parse all the Verbs, except those in the infinitive mood.



RULE VI.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN, PUT IN APPPOSITION WITH ANOTHER, AGREES WITH IT IN CASE.

Note. — A word is said to be in apposition with another of the same kind, when one is used to explain or identify the other; as, “Smith, the *bookseller*, keeps a large supply of books.”

NOTES.

1. The words in apposition may be in any case, nominative, possessive, or objective.

2. When a word is in apposition with another in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is sometimes omitted.

“This is the wandering wood, this Error’s den,
A *monster* vile, whom God and man do hate.”

“Monster,” here, is in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive being omitted, and is in apposition with “Error’s.”

3. A noun may be put in apposition with a whole sentence; as, “He promptly acceded to my request, an act which redounds greatly to his honor.” “Act” is here nominative, in apposition with the whole of the preceding sentence.

4. When several words form one proper name, as “Thomas Jefferson,” these words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural number, or the possessive case, of such complex names, the sign should be put only at the end; as, “The country has not had two Thomas Jeffersons;” “Thomas Jefferson’s works.”

5. When a proper name has a title prefixed, as, “General Greene,”

“Dr. Rush,” “Mr. Stockton,” the words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural of such complex names, if, besides the article, there is a numeral adjective prefixed, the *last* word only should be plural; as, “The two Mr. *Stocktons*.” But if there is no numeral prefixed, the *title* only should be plural; as, “The *Messrs*. Stockton,” “The *Misses* Stockton.”

6. One of the most frequent instances of apposition is where the proper noun of an object is appended to its common name; as, “The river Delaware.” It is a peculiarity of the English language that the proper names of *places*, when so appended, are not in apposition, but are put in the objective and governed by “of;” as, “The city *of* Philadelphia.”

7. The phrases “They love one another,” “They love each other,” etc., afford instances of apposition that very frequently occur. In the first of these examples, “one” is in the nominative, and is in apposition with “they;” and “another” is in the objective, governed by “love.” The meaning is, “One loves another.”

Model for Parsing.

“James writes a letter to his brother *John*.” “John” is a prop. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., obj. c., in apposition with the noun “brother,” according to Rule VI. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse the Nouns and Pronouns in Apposition in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

Alexander, the coppersmith, did me great harm.

Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, lies on the bank of the Susquehanna.

The knife was given to me by my brother James, he that was here last week.

Mr. Dale, the carpenter, him whom you saw here yesterday, is dead.

Godliness with contentment are great gain.

The hare is beset by death in various forms, snares, dogs, and the hunter's gun.

I met a fool, a crazy fool, in the streets, selling pictures, the works of his own idle fancy.

They destroyed the vessel and returned without losing a single man, an exploit which was highly creditable.

He was playing ball, an amusement of which boys are very fond.

We Americans call England our mother country.

I have two aunts Mary.

Review.

Parse all the Subjects in the foregoing exercises.

Parse all the Possessives.

Parse the objects of all the Verbs and Prepositions.

Parse all the Verbs and Prepositions.



RULE VII.

THE VERB TO BE HAS THE SAME CASE AFTER IT AS BEFORE IT.

Note.—In such instances, the noun or pronoun after the verb is not in apposition with the noun or pronoun before it, but is a part of the predicate of the verb. “James commands the troops.” The predicate “commands” may be resolved into the words “is commander of.” “Commander” should be parsed as nominative after the verb *is*, and forming a part of the predicate.

NOTES.

1. This rule applies also to the verb *become* and to several other intransitive verbs, and also to the passive voice of some transitive verbs, such as *to be named*, *to be called*, etc.

2. The verb *to be* in the infinitive mood used as a noun may have a noun or a pronoun after it without any other noun before it; as, “To be a good *man*, is not so easy a thing as many people imagine.” Here, “man” should be parsed as used indefinitely after the verb *to be*, without saying what its case is. The infinitive mood of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise the infinitive passive of some transitive verbs, may also have a noun or a pronoun after them used indefinitely; as, “To live a consistent

Christian is not easy," "To be called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

It is not easy to say in what case the noun is in such sentences. The analogy of the Latin would seem to indicate the objective. Thus, "Not to know what happened in past years, is to be always a child." Latin, "*semper esse puerum.*" In like manner, in English we say, "Its being *me*, need make no change in your determination."

Model for Parsing.

"James is commander of the troops." "Commander" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., nom. c. after the verb "is," and forming a part of the predicate, according to Rule VII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse the Nouns and Pronouns after the verb in the same case with the noun or pronoun before it, in the following sentences, correcting where necessary :

Thomson, the author of "The Seasons," is a delightful poet.

The Senate caused Scylla to be proclaimed Dictator.

Education, the great civilizer, is the best safeguard of that blood-bought blessing, liberty.

This is Arnold's grave, that vile traitor who sold his country for money.

There are eight Kings Henry in English history.

Wine has been his ruin. He entered manhood a pattern of sobriety, but died a miserable sot.

When I reign king, thou shalt be my slave.

Solomon is counted the wisest man of all ages.

The carriage was returned a perfect wreck.

To die a Christian is more desirable than to reign king.

To live a coward accords better with some persons' inclination, than to leave the world a hero.

Review.

Parse all the Nominatives, Possessives, and Objectives in the foregoing sentences.

Parse all the Verbs and Prepositions.

RULE VIII.

A PRONOUN AGREES WITH THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN FOR WHICH IT STANDS, IN GENDER, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. When a pronoun stands for a Collective noun, in the singular, the pronoun should be plural if the idea expressed by the noun is plural; as, "Send the multitude away that *they* may buy themselves bread." But if the idea expressed by the noun is singular, the pronoun should be singular, and should be in the neuter gender. "The class is too large; *it* must be divided into sections."

2. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, the pronoun should be plural. Thus, "William and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and she were both there; I saw *them*." "Them" in the first example stands for two nouns, in the second example for a noun and a pronoun, and in the third for two pronouns.

3. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, but used to express only one subject, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "He knew his Lord and Saviour, and loved *him*."

4. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, in the singular, and connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "Either play or work is injurious, if *it* is carried to excess."

5. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, but of different persons, the pronoun agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third. Thus, "William and I had *our* skates with *us*." "Our" and "us" are plural, because they stand for two subjects, "William" and "I." But one of these subjects, "William," being in the third person, and the other, "I," being in the first person, the pronoun which stands for both must be in the first person. We would not express the meaning, if we were to say, "William and I had *their* skates with *them*."

6. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected

by *and*, but of different genders, the gender of the pronoun is indeterminate, and must be omitted in parsing; as, "I saw the man and his portrait side by side, and I could hardly tell *them* apart, so great was the likeness." Here, "*them*" stands for "man" (masc.) and "portrait" (neuter); the gender of "*them*" therefore cannot be determined.

7. Words of different genders or persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, cannot be correctly represented by a single pronoun. Thus, "Mary or William has lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *her*, *his*, or *their*. Again, "He or I have lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *his*, *my*, *their*, or *our*.

8. A pronoun may stand for an infinitive mood; as, "To contradict an aged person may be rude, but *it* is not criminal." A pronoun may stand also for a part of a sentence; as, "He is very witty, but unfortunately he is aware of *it*." The pronoun in such cases should be in the third person, neuter gender, and singular number. But if there are two or more infinitives, or clauses, making distinct subjects, then the pronoun should be plural; as, "To be temperate, and to use exercise in the open air, are good preservatives of health, but *they* are not infallible."

9. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used indefinitely, that is, without standing for any particular noun. Thus, "Come and trip *it* as you go," "*It* rains," "*It* was he that did *it*," etc.

10. The gender of a noun is sometimes changed by personification. In such instances, a similar change occurs in the gender of the pronoun; as, "The ship has lost *her* anchor."

11. *We* frequently, and *you* generally, are used to represent the singular. It is improper in such cases to change the construction during the progress of a sentence; as, "*You were* true to me in the day of trouble, and *thy* kindness I can never forget." It should be either "*thou*" and "*thy*," or "*you*" and "*your*."

12. *Who* is used in referring to persons; *Which* is used in referring to inferior animals, to things without life, to infants, to collective nouns where unity of idea is expressed, and to persons in asking questions where the particular individual is inquired for. "*Which*" was formerly applied to persons as well as things; as, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven."

13. *That* is used instead of *Who* or *Which* in the following cases:

1. After two antecedents, one requiring *who*, and the other

requiring *which*; as, "The *man* and the *house* *that* we saw yesterday."

2. After the *Superlative*; as, "It is the *best* book *that* can be got."

3. After *Same*; as, "He is the *same* kind-hearted man *that* he used to be."

4. After *All*, or any similar antecedent expressing a general meaning, limited by the following verb; as, "*All that* heard me can testify."

5. After *Who*, used interrogatively, as, "*Who, that* has seen anything of human nature, can believe it?"

6. After *It*, used indefinitely; as, "*It* was he *that* did it."

14. When the relative has two antecedents, of different persons, one before and the other after the verb *to be*, the relative agrees in person with the nearest; as, "I am the man *who* commands you." Where a different meaning is intended, the relative should be placed nearer the first antecedent; as, "I who command you, am the man."

15. The relative should be placed near its antecedent to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The *boy* broke his slate, *whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief," should be, "The *boy, whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief, broke his slate."

16. The relative is sometimes omitted; as, "The letter [which] you wrote me on Saturday, came duly to hand." This is allowable only in colloquial language.

17. The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "[The person] who lives to nature, rarely can be poor."

18. *What* is sometimes apparently used as an adverb, but in all such cases the ellipsis can be supplied; as, "What doth it profit a man?" that is, "[In] what [respect] doth it profit a man?"

19. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus, "I don't know but *what* I shall go," should be, "I don't know but *that* I shall go."

Whichever, whatsoever, etc., are sometimes written as two words with other words intervening; "*which side soever*." In parsing, the two parts of the word should be taken together as one word.

Models for Parsing.

"John, *who* was at school, wrote a letter to his father." "Who" is a rel. pron., masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., to agree with "John,"

according to Rule VIII. (quote), and is in the nom. c. to "was," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"It" (in the second example under Note 1) is a pers. pron., n. g., and in the sing. n., 3d p., to agree with "class," a collective noun expressing unity of idea, according to Rule VIII., Note 1 (quote Note), and is in the nom. c. to "must be divided," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"Us" (in the example, Note 5) is a pers. pron., standing for "William" and "I," two words of different persons; it is therefore in the 1st p., according to Note 5, Rule VIII. (quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VIII. (quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the preposition "with," according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"That" (in the first example, Note 13) is a rel. pron., relating to the two antecedents, "man" and "house," and used instead of "who" or "which," according to Note 13, Rule VIII. (quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VIII. (quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the verb "saw," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"He reads *what* is written." "What" is a rel. pron., and relates to the object of "reads," understood. It is in the n. g. sing. n., 3d p., and is in the nom. c. to "is written," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse all the Pronouns in the following sentences, correcting and supplying omissions where necessary:

He only who is active and industrious can experience real pleasure.

He who is a stranger to industry may possess wealth, but he cannot enjoy it.

Trust not him whose friendship is bought with gold.

The boys replied to the general, "We come to you to complain of your soldiers; they have destroyed our playground. We requested them not to disturb it, but they called us rebels."

The multitude seek pleasure as its chief good.

The Board of School Controllers have just published its annual report.

If your rudeness and noise continue, it will effectually hinder you from gaining any benefit.

A lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

The army was eating its dinner, when it was surprised.

The family of Adam include the whole human race; you and I are a part of them.

The silent circle fans itself in-doors, while the coachman without is famished with cold.

It appears to have been John and James who were guilty.

What is it that vexes you?

The moon shed her pale light over the landscape.

Lay up in thy heart what you have now heard.

Do unto others as thou wouldst have others do unto you.

[Supply relatives before parsing.] The ship——I saw had a cargo——was very valuable; its captain was a man——every member of the crew obeyed, though——was composed of men of the worst character.

Who, who ever had a man or a beast, which served him faithfully, would say, it is they who should thank me; I have nothing for which to feel grateful.

Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw.

It is the same picture which you saw before.

All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave.

Who, who has any sense of religion, will argue thus?

The lady and the lapdog which we saw in the window.

The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry, who had never before been guilty of so unjust an action.

The tiger is a beast of prey who destroys without pity.

This is the friend which I love.

This is the vice whom I hate.

The infant whom you see in the cradle is sick.

Who of those men came to his assistance?

Thou art the man who has done the crime, and I who suffers the penalty, am innocent.

Take that book to the library, which I left on my table.

There was a bird caught by the fox, which was web-footed.

The criminal was hung by the sheriff, who committed this shocking murder.

That officer was selected to arrest the thief, in whom the Mayor placed the utmost confidence.

This soldier was never rewarded by his captain, who was the bravest private in his company, because he differed with him in politics.

[Supply relatives before parsing.] The house I live in and the furniture it contains are the products of the industry of the many toilsome hours I spent in active business.

[Supply antecedent.] Who tempers the wind to the shorn lamb, will take care of me.

Whom I respect I obey, not those I have no confidence in.

[Insert proper pronouns in dotted spaces, and verbs in the other.]

The school — composed of both sexes; . . . — been divided into two departments.

The Cabinet — divided in . . . opinion.

The legislature — . . . meetings at Harrisburg; my brother is a member of . . .

Either my father, or any other man could have had the right to express their opinions.

Hunger or thirst I can bear; they give pain to the body; but the pangs of a guilty conscience I cannot bear.

She or Mary must have left their candle burning.



RULE IX.

AN ARTICLE BELONGS TO THE NOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES OR POINTS OUT.*

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the article belongs is often understood. In that case, supply the noun, and parse the article according to the Rule, as belonging to the noun thus supplied. Thus, "Turn neither to *the* right [hand], nor to *the* left [hand]." "Henry *the* Eighth [king of that name] was then reigning."

2. If there is an adjective before the noun, the article must

To the Teacher.—It might perhaps be more scientific to say, "The Article is connected syntactically with the Noun which it qualifies or points out." But the rule as given is easier for the memory, and gives substantially the same idea to the young learner, the only object in either case being to accustom him to the necessity of pointing out the noun to which the Article is thus related.

The same remark applies to the wording of Rules X, XI, XII, and XIII.

precede the adjective; as, "a virtuous man," not "virtuous a man." If the adjective before the noun is *all*, *such*, *many*, *what*, or *both*, or if the adjective is preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*, the article must come after the adjective; as, "all the men," "such a sight," "too serious an undertaking," etc.

3. When two or more adjectives connected belong to the same subject, the article is used before the first only; as, "a red and white flag," *i. e.*, one flag, partly red and partly white. But, when the adjectives belong to different subjects, the article is used before each; as, "a red and a white flag," *i. e.*, two flags, one red and one white.

4. In using the comparative with *than*, if the nouns before and after "than" both refer to the same subject, the article should be used before the first only; as, "He is a better speaker than writer;" but, if the nouns refer to different subjects, the article should be repeated before both; as, "A man makes a better soldier than a woman."

5. *A* or *an* is joined to nouns in the singular number only; as, "a man." The exceptions to this are apparent rather than real. Thus, "a few things," means a certain number of things, and not more; "a thousand men" means one thousand of men, and not two thousand, etc. The *a* should be parsed as belonging to the words "few," "thousand," etc., used as nouns in the singular, and the word following governed by *of* understood.

6. A marked difference of meaning is produced by the use or the omission of *a* before *few* and *little*. "He has *a* little decency," means he has at least *some*. "He has *little* decency," intimates a doubt whether he has *any*.

7. *A* is often an abbreviation for some other short word, *at*, *in*, *on*, etc.; as, "His greatness is a ripening." In such cases it is not an article, but a preposition, and is to be parsed accordingly.

8. "*The more* you examine the book, *the better* you will like it." In such expressions, the article must be parsed as limiting the adverb.

For the explanation of this construction, we must revert to the earlier form of the language. In its Anglo-Saxon form, the article was a demonstrative pronoun, and was regularly declined, like the corresponding words in Latin and Greek. In the construction now under consideration, the article was in the case called the Instrumental, corresponding in the main to the Latin ablative. "*By that* you examine the book more, *by that* you

will like it better." The English phrase has an almost exact equivalent in the Latin, *Quo majus, eo melius*.

Model for Parsing.

"James writes *a* letter." "A" is the ind. art., and belongs to the noun "letter," according to Rule IX. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse the Articles in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

At first the enemy gave way, but afterward he repulsed the left of our line.

Time destroys both the great and the small.

Glory to God in the highest.

A too severe discipline is tyranny.

The banner of the United States is a red, a white, and a blue flag.

Fire is a better servant than a master.

He is a better poet than a historian.

A rosy-faced and pale girl were seen on the right of the room.

Truth is a mightier weapon than sword.

Disease is a greater destroyer than earthquake.

Mr. C., having tried the stage and pulpit, was found to be a better minister than an actor.

He had a few pupils, who came twice a week to receive his lessons. They preferred this to going a hunting.

The louder he spoke, the less he was heard, and the noise made by the audience became the greater.

He who uses filthy language has a little decency.

He who merely is ashamed of soiled clothes, shows thereby that he has little decency.

He was such a tyrant that a few persons mourned at his death.

As everybody knew him to be a thief, a few persons intrusted their goods to him.

Review.

Parse all the Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, and Prepositions in the foregoing sentences.

RULE X.

AN ADJECTIVE BELONGS TO THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES.*

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the adjective belongs is sometimes omitted; as, "Of two evils, choose the least" In that case, supply the omission, and parse the adjective according to the Rule, as belonging to the noun thus supplied.

2. An adjective sometimes qualifies an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, "To use profane language is both foolish and wicked." In such cases the adjective should be parsed as belonging to the infinitive mood, or the part of a sentence.

3. The infinitive mood or the participle is sometimes found with an adjective after it not qualifying any particular noun, that is, used indefinitely; as, "To be *good* is the surest way of being *happy*." "Good," here, is to be parsed by saying that it is an adjective used indefinitely after the infinitive. In like manner, "happy" is used indefinitely after the participle.

4. When an adjective expresses any number (more than one), the noun or pronoun to which it belongs must be plural; as, "ten pounds," not "ten pound." Some nouns, however, have a plural meaning with a singular form; as, "Ten sail of the line." In such instances the plural form of the noun is not required.

5. When two adjectives precede a noun, both expressing number, one of them may express the idea of unity, the other that of plurality; as, "one hundred men," "the first hundred lines," etc. In these instances, the several things are considered in their aggregate capacity, as forming one whole. The rule of construction is, to make the noun plural, and put the singular adjective before the plural one; as, "the first hundred lines," not "the hundred first lines."

6. By an idiom of the English language, *many* is sometimes used before the singular with *a* prefixed; as, "many a flower."

7. The comparative degree generally refers to two objects, the superlative to two or more; as, "John is the *taller* of the two," "John is the *tallest* of the whole number."

*See Note to Teachers on page 133.

8. The comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes; as, "Eve was fairer than any of *her daughters*." The superlative considers the objects as belonging to one class; as, "Eve was the fairest of women."

9. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper. Thus, "A worser man," should be, "A worse man;" "The most politest boy," should be, "The politest boy."

10. Some adjectives express a quality incapable of increase or diminution; as, *chief, extreme, universal*, etc. In such cases, the comparative and superlative terminations should not be used.

11. Adjectives should not be used for adverbs, that is, to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. "He speaks correct," should be, "He speaks correctly;" "A sufficient long time," should be, "A sufficiently long time;" "He came remarkable soon," should be, "He came remarkably soon."

12. Sometimes the adjective seems to qualify a verb; as, "The egg is boiled *hard*," "The apple tastes *sweet*," "The board looks *smooth*, but it is rough." Here the meaning is, "The egg is boiled until it is hard;" "The apple tastes as if it were sweet;" "The board looks as if it were smooth." As the quality is thus connected with the preceding noun or pronoun, the word is an adjective, and it should be so parsed.

13. In poetry, an adjective is sometimes used in the sense of an adverb; as, "*Slow* rises merit when by poverty oppressed." In these cases, the word is an adverb, and should be so parsed.

14. An adjective is sometimes used as a noun; as, "None but *the brave* deserve *the fair*;" "All partial *evil* is but universal *good*."

Model for Parsing.

"James writes a *long* letter." "Long" is an adj., in the pos. deg. ("long, longer, longest"), and belongs to "letter," which it qualifies or describes, according to Rule X. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse the Adjectives in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

A great reward has been offered for the detection of the criminal.
The best men are liable to occasional infirmities of temper.

To repine at the prosperity of others is despicable.

To be ever active in laudable pursuits is highly meritorious.

There are six foot of water in the hold.

Rhode Island is the smaller of the United States.

Spain at one time possessed a greater commerce than any nation in Europe.

The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.

Sing the three first and the last stanzas of the hymn.

There is no more universal sentiment than this.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man.

He writes elegant. She sings sweet.

To drink wine to excess is destructive of health.

To practise virtue is more acceptable to God than the sacrifice of bullocks or of rams.

To be wise to-day is the way to commence to be wise.

To remain ignorant in a land like ours is inexcusable.

The evil that men do lives after them; the good is often buried with them.

The vain, the wealthy, and the proud, are not the proper persons to be imitated.

"Then give Humility a coach and six."

That style of dress is more admired by some than this. Let each lady indulge their own taste.

Those who go to war must expect to suffer many privations; some will die, and others lose their limbs.

Every station in life has its cares.

The hay is sufficient for ten heads of horses, allowing twenty pound to each horse.

The ten first men marched two by two.

Consumption is the most destructive of the other diseases, and more common than any disease in the United States.

Walls of solid granite are no adequate protection against the enginery of modern warfare.

Review.

Parse the Articles, Nouns, Verbs, and Prepositions in the foregoing sentences.

RULE XI.

AN ADJECTIVE PRONOUN BELONGS TO THE NOUN
OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES OR POINTS
OUT.*

NOTES.

1. The Distributives and Demonstratives agree in number with the nouns to which they belong; as, "*This* sort of persons," not "*These* sort." The distributives, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are all singular. Of the demonstratives, *this* and *that* are singular, *these* and *those* plural.

2. The personal pronoun should not be used for the adjective pronoun; as, "those books," not "*them* books."

3. *Either* is sometimes used improperly for *each*; as, "Nadab and Abihu took *either* of them his censer." Grammatically, this means that only one of them took a censer, whereas the meaning intended is that they both did so. It should be "*each*."

4. The noun is often understood after adjective pronouns. In such cases, supply the noun, and parse as usual; as, "Let each . . . do his duty."

5. *None*, though meaning according to its composition *no one*, yet represents nouns in the plural as well as in the singular: "We hunted for berries, but found *none*;" "A copy of the work was wanted, but *none* was to be had." *None* is never used except when the noun to which it belongs is omitted.

Model for Parsing.

"James wrote *this* letter." "This" is a dem. adj. pron., belonging to "letter," according to Rule XI. (quote), and is in the singular number, to agree with "letter," according to Note 1, Rule XI. (Quote.)

(N. B. — In parsing any other adjective pronoun, except the distributives and indefinites, the last part of the Model must be omitted.)

Exercises.

Parse the Adjective Pronouns in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

Those men only are great who are good.

Those men who despise the admonitions of their friends deserve the evils which their own obstinacy brings upon them.

Those sort of people fear nothing.

Who broke this scissors?

He adhered strictly to his profession, and by those means gained success.

Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; this ennobles the mind, that debases it.

Them kind of favors did real injury.

The king of Israel and the king of Judah sat either of them on his throne.

Such as are diligent will be rewarded.

Some are naturally timid, others are bold and active.

Give to each his own.

This oats is of those species called wild oats.

These sort of vegetable productions are considered mere weeds.

In the Bible, tares and wheat are used to represent different kinds of men; that, to denote the good, and this, the bad.

Either of them Siamese twins were so joined to the other at the breast that one could not move without the other.

Either side of that square field is of the same length as the three others.

Some whom I considered my enemies assisted, while none really pitied me; each one who rendered me assistance, did so because their conscience, and not their love for me, prompted them.

The smallest of the twins seemed the more intelligent of the six children.

Samuel was the strongest of all his brothers, and Mary the neatest of the other members of the family.

It would be a queer world, if every one might do as they like.

The silence of nature is more impressive, would we understand it, than any speech could be: it expresses what no speech can utter.

The greatness of a gift cannot be determined by its absolute amount: it can be truly ascertained only by a moral standard.

Review.

Parse all the other Pronouns, Nouns, Adjectives, Articles, and Verbs in the foregoing sentences.

RULE XII.

A PARTICIPLE BELONGS TO THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES.*

NOTES.

1. The participle is often used as a noun, either in the nominative case or in the objective; as, "*Writing* letters is easier than writing compositions" (nom.); "*In writing* letters he soon became expert" (obj.). In these instances, the participle, as a part of the verb, retains its government of the objective.

2. The participle used as a noun, is frequently found governing another noun in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on *John's* writing his letters rapidly."

3. The participle is sometimes used as a noun merely; as, "Avoid foolish *talking* and *jesting*." When so used, parse the word simply as a noun in the third person, neuter gender.

4. The participle is sometimes used simply as an adjective; as, "*Singing* birds abound in summer," "He is a *learned* man." When a participle is so used, call it a participial adjective, and parse it as any other adjective.

5. When a participial noun has an article before it, it should have "of" after it; as, "*The* learning of Greek," not "*The* learning Greek." In such sentences, the article and the preposition should either both be used, or both omitted. The latter is by far the most common.

6. When the article and the preposition are both used in connection with a participial noun, the meaning is generally the same as when they are both omitted. Thus, "*The* learning of languages," means the same as "learning languages." This, however, is not always the case; as, "He confessed the whole in *the hearing* of three witnesses," "The court spent an hour *in hearing* the witnesses." It is perhaps impossible to give a rule which shall direct in all cases when to use and when to omit the article and the preposition.

7. A participle of the verb *to be* may have a noun or a pronoun after it in apposition with the one before it: as, "Thomas, being an apt *scholar*, won the favor of his teacher." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and like-

*See Note to Teachers on page 133.

wise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Solomon, while reigning *king*, built the temple," "Washington, being appointed *commander-in-chief*, proceeded at once to Cambridge."

8. A participle of the verb *to be*, when used as a participial noun, may have a noun after it used indefinitely; as, "His being a good *penman* soon gained him employment." Here, "penman" is not nominative to "gained," nor is it in apposition with anything understood before "being," but must be parsed as used indefinitely after the participle "being." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Living a consistent *Christian* is not easy," "Being called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

9. A participle may be used indefinitely after the infinitive of the verb *to be*, used as a noun; as, "To be forever in one place, *doing* nothing, would be intolerable." "Doing," here, belongs to no noun, that is, it is used indefinitely. This rule applies also to participles after the infinitive mood of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise of some transitive verbs in the passive voice; as, "To remain *doing* nothing would be intolerable," "To be found *stealing* is a disgrace."

10. When the noun to which a participle belongs is in the nominative absolute, this fact should always be mentioned in parsing the participle.

11. Care should be taken not to confound the past tense and the perfect participle; as, "He *began* to write," not "He *begun* to write;" "He *did* it," not "He *done* it;" "He *saw* it," not "He *seen* it," etc.

12. Care should be taken not to use the past tense instead of the perfect participle after the auxiliaries *to have* and *to be*; as, "He has *gone* home," not "He has *went* home;" "It was *written*," not "It was *wrote*."

Model for Parsing.

"James, *having written* a letter, sent it to the Post-office." "Having written" is a comp. perf. part., act. v., of the irr. trans. verb "to write" (write, wrote, written), and belongs to "James," according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse the Participles in the following sentences, correcting where necessary :

Knowledge, softened by good breeding, makes a man beloved and admired.

Having finished his speech, he descended from the platform.

The youthful poet, while walking alone in the woods, fell into a reverie.

Precept has little influence, if not enforced by example.

True honor, as defined by Cicero, is the concurrent approbation of good men.

Much depends on the pupil observing the rules.

What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?

I remember it being done.

The learning anything speedily requires great application.

By the exercising our faculties they are improved.

By observing of these rules you may avoid mistakes.

This was a betraying the trust reposed in him.

His being called a wit did not make him one.

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor to deny.

The sun rising, darkness flees away.

Thus repulsed, our final hope is flat despair.

He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do.

He was greatly heated, and he drunk with avidity.

I would have wrote a letter.

He had mistook his true interest.

The coat had no seam, but was wove throughout.

The French language is spoke in every kingdom in Europe.

Having taken much medicine, and continuing to grow worse, my distressed mother said that giving me medicine seemed useless. Travelling was then tried with encouraging signs of my growing better.

His lesson being learned, and his other duties having been performed, he was to have a ride on horseback, he selecting the route to be taken.

Breaking of windows by the throwing stones is a species of mischief which is as wrong as dishonesty.

Having been educated a teacher, I must follow my profession.

When the Pilgrims had come to America, the streams were froze, the birds had flew to warmer regions; the fierce wintry wind blowed; they had been drove from their comfortable homes. To forsake the land of their birth was indeed sad; but to have forsook their faith, would have showed a want of sincerity and fortitude.

William done a gross act of injustice.

Review.

Parse all the other words in the foregoing sentences, except the Adverbs and the Conjunctions.



RULE XIII.

AN ADVERB BELONGS TO THE VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR OTHER ADVERB WHICH IT QUALIFIES.*

NOTES.

1. Adverbs are generally placed before adjectives, after verbs, and often between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He is *very* attentive." "She behaves *well*." "They are *much* esteemed." This rule is far from being universal in its application. It is in fact impossible to give any one rule which shall determine the position of the adverb in all circumstances.

2. Adverbs should not be used where adjectives are required, that is, to qualify nouns or pronouns. Thus, "He dressed in a style *conformable* to the ruling fashion," not "*conformably*." "The dress looked *pretty*," not "*prettily*." "Pretty," here, is an adjective describing "dress," and does not qualify the verb "looked." It does not express the manner of looking.

3. *From* should not be used before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, because it is implied. Custom, however, has in a great measure sanctioned the violation of this rule.

4. *Hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, were formerly used after verbs

* See Note to Teachers on page 133.

of motion. They are now used only on solemn occasions. Thus, "Come *here*," not "Come *hither*."

5. *Where* and *when* are often incorrectly used instead of *which* and its adjuncts; as, "The situation *where* (in which) I found him," "Since *when* (which time) I have not seen him."

6. *There* is often used as a mere *expletive*, its only force being to introduce the verb before its nominative; as, "There is truth in the old proverb." In such sentences, *there* does not mean in *that place*.

7. *How* should not be used for *that*; as, "He said *how* he would do it." It should be "that."

8. *No* never qualifies a verb. When there is an ellipsis of the verb, *no* is sometimes incorrectly used instead of *not*; as, "Will you walk or *no*?" It should be "not," as will be seen by supplying the ellipsis. Thus, "Will you walk, or (will you) *not* (walk)?"

9. *Nay*, *no*, *yea*, *yes*, expressing simply negation or affirmation, contain in themselves a complete sense, and do not belong to any verb. The same is true of *Amen*.

10. Two negatives are improper, if intended to express the same negation. When so used, they destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative. Thus, "I cannot by *no* means allow it," should be, "I can by no means allow it," or "I cannot by any means allow it."

11. Sometimes, when one of the negatives (such as *dis*, *in*, *un*, *im*, etc.) is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate mode of affirming; as, "His language, though simple, is *not inelegant*," that is, "It is elegant."

12. An adverb should not be placed between the infinitive and its auxiliary *to*. "He preferred to *not* go" should be "He preferred *not* to go." "He determined to *thoroughly* understand it" should be "He determined to understand it *thoroughly*."

Model for Parsing.

"James wrote a letter *hastily*." "Hastily" is an adv. in the pos. deg. (hastily, more hastily, most hastily), and belongs to the verb "wrote," according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

"A *thoroughly* bad man." "Thoroughly" is an adv. in the pos. deg. (thoroughly, more thoroughly, most thoroughly), and belongs to the adj. "bad," according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse all the Adverbs in the following sentences, and make the necessary corrections :

A very smart child may learn more rapidly than is desirable.
Economy, prudently conducted, leads very rapidly to wealth.
She is particularly beautiful.

The most cautious are frequently deceived.

We should not be overcome totally by present events.

He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly.

He lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of reason and religion.

They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war.

He drew up a paper, where he too frequently represented his own merit.

He left Philadelphia last December, since when he has not been heard of.

Whether you study or no, you never know the lesson at the time of recitation. You don't do nothing correct.

He did not say whether his father would consent or no.

He will never be no taller.

They could not travel no farther.

Covet neither riches, or honors, or no such perishing things.

It was cold exceedingly ; the north wind incessantly blew ; I have experienced seldom so severe a winter.

This is an often error made by children in talking ; it is of seldom occurrence in writing.

She looks coldly, she is not warm enough dressed.

Some persons are of such a nature that they look cold upon those who treat them affectionate.

He arrived at the house where I live, but started from thence immediately.

The best of men not unfrequently are misled by the machinations of the crafty.

Review.

Parse all the other words in the foregoing sentences, except the Conjunctions.

RULE XIV.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD DEPENDS UPON SOME VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR NOUN.

Explanation.—The infinitive limits and complements the meaning of the word on which it depends. "I desire to sleep," "Prone to sleep," "A time to sleep." Here, if we have not the infinitive, the meaning in each case is incomplete. The words, "to sleep," are needed, both to fill out the sense of the word on which they depend, and to give the word its intended limitation.

NOTES.

1. The preposition *to*, which is used in making the form called the infinitive mood, and which is generally called the sign of the infinitive mood, is not to be parsed by itself, but with the verb.

There is no more incongruity in thus combining a verb and a preposition, than in combining an adverb and a preposition, as in "at once," or in combining a verb and its auxiliary. *To* is in fact an auxiliary of the infinitive mood. Such combinations are among the most common contrivances of language. In the earlier form of the language, the infinitive was marked, as it is in Greek and Latin, by a termination of its own. In course of time, this termination, *an*, was dropped, and *to*, which in the verbal formation had originally been used for quite a different purpose, came into use as a sign of the infinitive.

2. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, is generally omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare* (to venture), *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, and some others; as, "I saw him (to) do it." In the passive voice of these verbs, however, the "to" is generally expressed; as, "He was seen *to* do it."

3. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, should not be separated from the verb by inserting between "to" and the verb any other word or words. Thus, "I am resolved to not go," should be, "I am resolved not to go."

4. The infinitive seems sometimes to depend upon other parts of speech, besides those enumerated in the rule. Thus, "Be so good *as* (conjunction) to read this letter." In such cases, the sentence is elliptical. Thus, "Be so good *as* (you must be *in order*) to read this letter."

5. The infinitive is sometimes used apparently without dependence upon any word; as, "To speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct." This construction also is elliptical; as, "*(in order)* to speak plainly," etc.

6. The infinitive mood is frequently used as a noun, and at the same time retains its government of the objective case. Thus, "To write letters is easy." Here, "to write," as a noun, is nominative to "is," and at the same time, as a verb, governs "letters."

7. TENSE OF THE INFINITIVE. — Whenever the action or event signified by the infinitive is contemporary or future with respect to the verb on which it depends, the present tense of the infinitive is required. Hence, verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect infinitive. Thus, "I expected to have found him," should be, "I expected to find him."

Model for Parsing.

"James tried *to write* a letter." "To write" is a trans. verb, irr., act. v., inf. m., pres. t., and depends upon the verb "tried," according to Rule XIV. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Parse all the Infinitives in the following sentences, and make the necessary corrections:

A man anxious to reach home will aim to be at the station in time to secure his seat.

A good man loves to do good. They have a wish to learn.

He has written some things hard to be understood.

The desire to be rich is one of the strongest of human desires.

A man eager to learn the truth is not apt to fall into error.

She is worthy to be loved. They need not to call her.

I dare not to proceed so hastily. He bade me to go home.

He was seen write the letter.

It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one, and to reject the other.

He was seen do it, though I heard his father to tell him not to do it.

Help me to finish this work, and you will not find the time to pass so slowly.

I did not intend for to hurt him.

This is for to let you know how I am well.

He begged to have been released from his prison.

To live righteously, soberly, and godly, is required of all men.

To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservatives of health.

I am not so stupid as to make such an error.

To be candid with you, I must say, you did wrong.

Not to leave you under the impression that I was one of your supporters, I tell you I did not vote for you.

Review.

Parse all the other words in the foregoing sentences, except the Conjunctions.



RULE XV.

A CONJUNCTION CONNECTS THE WORDS, SENTENCES, OR PARTS OF SENTENCES, BETWEEN WHICH IT STANDS.

NOTES.

1. The words connected by conjunctions must be of the same class. Nouns are connected with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, verbs with verbs, adverbs with adverbs, etc. Nouns and pronouns are here counted as belonging to one class.

2. There is sometimes an ellipsis of one of the words or sentences, giving an appearance of a conjunction not truly connective; as, "*That* John has written his letter, is easily proved." Here, "*that*" seems simply to introduce a clause which is the subject of the verb. But by supplying the ellipsis, "(the fact) *that* John has written," etc., the true connective character of the conjunction appears.

3. Words and clauses are often connected, not by a single conjunction, but by two conjunctions, or by a conjunction and an adverb, corresponding to each other; as, "Give me *neither* poverty *nor* riches."

4. The following is a list of the principal conjunctions that have a corresponding conjunction or adverb:

Neither, ——— *nor*; as, It is neither cold nor hot.

Either, ——— *or*; as, Either she or her sister must go.

Whether, ——— *or*; as, Whether he will do it or not, I cannot say.

Though, ——— *yet*; as, Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

If, ——— *then*; as, If he speaks true, then you speak false.

Both, ——— *and*; as, I am debtor both to the Greeks, and to the Barbarians.

Not only, ——— *but also*; as, Not only his character, but also his life was at stake.

As, { ——— *as*; as, My land is as good as yours (equality).
 { ——— *so*; as, As the stars, so shall thy seed be (equality or proportion).

So, { ——— *as*; He is not so wise as his brother (denying equality).
 { ——— *that*; I am so weak that I cannot walk (consequence).

Much difference of opinion exists respecting the true nature of the word *as*, many grammarians of high authority calling it in certain circumstances a relative pronoun, equivalent to *who* or *which*. Others again prefer to consider it in such sentences a conjunction, and explain the construction by ellipsis. Although it is difficult in all cases to supply an ellipsis which shall be perfectly satisfactory, yet the difficulty seems less than that of considering *as* a pronoun. Thus, "Shun such *as* (those are, who) are vicious," "To as many *as* (are those, who) received him." The ellipsis is often that of the indefinite *it*. Thus, "*As* (it) concerns me," "*As* (it) regards me," "*As* (it) appears," "*As* (it) follows." The usage is not entirely uniform in regard to the verb "follows." In giving a specification of particulars, almost all good writers use the phrase "*as follows*." Still, there are some writers of high authority, who make the verb plural when the antecedent word is *so*; as, "The words were *as follow*." "*As follows*," however, is far more common, the indefinite "*it*" being understood.

Sometimes, *as* is preceded by *such*, or some other definite antecedent, limiting the assertion to a part of a certain class of objects, and requiring the same definite limitation in the succeeding clause. In this case, it is not proper to supply the ellipsis by the indefinite "*it*," but by a word corresponding to the one used in the correlative clause. Hence, if the ante-

cedent is plural, the word to be supplied is plural, and the verb must be so too. Thus, "Such (men) *as* (those who) follow a profession," "Such of his censures only, *as* (those which) concern my friend."

5. The comparative degree, and the words *other*, *rather*, and *else*, are generally followed by *than*; as, "John is greater *than* James."

6. After *than* there is almost always an ellipsis of several words. In supplying these words, the latter clause must be made analogous to the preceding; as, "John has written more than James (*has written*)."

The only exception to this rule is in the use of the relative *who*, which sometimes becomes *whom*, where the corresponding clause requires the nominative; as, "Than *whom*, Satan except, none higher sat." If the personal pronoun be substituted for the relative, it would be in the nominative case; thus, "None sat higher than *he* (did)." The construction of the relative in such cases seems to be a well established usage of the language. In such a sentence I would not call the conjunction a preposition, but in parsing the relative I would say, that "*THAN is sometimes followed by WHOM, even when the corresponding clause requires the nominative.*"

7. Conjunctions generally connect the same moods and tenses of verbs; as, "He reads and writes well;" and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "I saw him and her."

8. When conjunctions connect verbs in the same mood and tense, the nominative is generally not repeated; but when the verbs connected are in different moods or tenses, the nominative should be repeated before each; as, "He may return, but he will not remain." The nominative is also often repeated when, in the progress of the sentence, we pass from the positive form of expression to the negative, or the contrary, or when a contrast is made; "Though I admire him greatly, yet I do *not* love him" (from pos. to neg.), "Though he was rich, *yet* he became poor" (contrast), etc.

Model for Parsing.

"James *and* John are brothers." "And" is a conjunction, connecting "James" and "John," according to Rule XV. (Quote.)

"It is neither cold nor hot." "Neither" and "nor" are corresponding conjunctions, connecting "cold" and "hot," according to Rule XV., Note 4.

Exercises.

Parse all the words in the following sentences, correcting and supplying ellipses, where necessary :

Forget the faults of others, and remember your own.

Study universal rectitude, and cherish religious hope.

Practise humility, and reject everything in dress, carriage, or conversation, which has any appearance of pride.

If ye do these things, ye shall never fail.

It is neither cold or hot. †

Neither despise the poor, or envy the rich.

Though he slay me, so will I trust him.

So as thy days, so shall thy strength be.

He was as angry as he could not speak.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name.

He or me must go. Neither he nor her can attend.

Anger glances into the heart of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools.

To profess regard, and acting differently, mark a base mind.

Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue.

She was proud, though now humble.

He is not rich, but is respectable.

The story was not believed — we were defeated.

Wood is not — durable — iron.

One hour is — long — another.

He ate so much — he became sick.

As he treated others, — he expected to be treated by them.

Though he was severe with the vicious, — he was lenient to those who tried to do right.

It was done better by him than — me.

Washington was a better man than Napoleon —.

The teacher ought to know more than his scholars —.

I was your enemy, but now am your friend.

He is his friend to-day, but may be his enemy to-morrow.

Unless it blossoms in the spring, the tree will not bear fruit in autumn.

The days in December, you know, are at their shortest, and therefore you must rise by the dawn, if you would have much daylight.

RULE XVI.—INTERJECTIONS.

AN INTERJECTION HAS NO DEPENDENCE UPON OTHER WORDS.

NOTES.

1. In parsing an interjection, all that is necessary is to tell what part of speech it is.

2. Sometimes interjections have the appearance of governing the objective case; as, "Ah me!" But such sentences are always elliptical, some verb or preposition being understood; as, "Ah! (pity) me."



MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

To be Corrected and Parsed.

I.

1. John writes pretty. 2. I shall never do so no more. 3. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. 4. Was you present at the last meeting? 5. He dare not act otherwise than he does. 6. Him whom they seek is in the house. 7. George or I is the person. 8. They or he is much to be blamed. 9. The troop consist of fifty men. 10. Those set of books was a valuable present.

II.

1. A pillar sixty foot high. 2. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. 3. These trees are remarkable tall. 4. He acted bolder than was expected. 5. This is he who I gave the book to. 6. From whence came they? 7. Who do you lodge with now? 8. The Select Council was not unanimous in its opinion. 9. If he be sincere, I am satisfied. 10. Her father and her were at church.

III.

1. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. 2. It is no more but his due. 3. Flatterers flatter as long, and no

longer than they have expectations of gain. 4. John told the same story which you did. 5. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen. 6. Let he and I read the next chapter. 7. Those sort of dealings are unjust. 8. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of his brothers. 9. You was very kind to him, he said. 10. Well, said I, what does thou think of him now?

IV.

1. James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behavior. 2. Thou, James, did deny the deed. 3. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. 4. We need not to be afraid. 5. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. 6. You should have drank goat's milk. 7. It was him who spoke first. 8. Is it me that you mean? 9. Who did you buy your grammar from? 10. If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray.

V.

1. Neither man nor woman were present. 2. I am more taller than you. 3. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. 4. After the most strictest notions of the sect, I lived a hermit. 5. There was more sophists than one. 6. If a person have lived twenty or thirty years, he should have some experience. 7. If this were his meaning, the prediction has failed. 8. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. 9. When they had went out, they saw no man there save the farmer only. 10. Strive not with a man without cause, if he have done thee no harm.

VI.

1. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. 2. The girl's book it is torn in pieces. 3. It is not me who he is in love with. 4. He which commands himself, commands the whole world. 5. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue. 6. The peoples happiness is the statesmans honor. 7. Changed to a worser shape thou canst not be. 8. I have drunk no spirituious liquors this six years. 9. He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him. 10. Solid peace and contentment consists neither in beauty or riches, but in the favor of God.

VII.

1. After who is the King of Israel come out? 2. The reciprocations of love and friendship between he and I have been many and sincere. 3. Abuse of mercies ripen us for judgment. 4. Peter and John is not at school to-day. 5. Three of them was taken into custody. 6. To study diligently, and behave genteelly, is commendable. 7. The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. 8. Suppose life never so long, fresh accessions of knowledge may still be made. 9. Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. 10. Neither the master nor the scholars is reading.

VIII.

1. Trust not him, whom, you know, is dishonest. 2. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue. 3. Every imagination of the thoughts of the heart are evil continually. 4. No one can be blamed for taking due care of their health. 5. The product of the silver mines of Mexico and Peru far exceed those of Europe and Asia. 6. I have read Popes Homer, and Drydens Virgil. 7. He that is diligent you should commend. 8. There was an earthquake which made the earth to tremble. 9. He was very much made on at school. 10. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered.

IX.

1. If he is alone tell him the news; but if there is anybody with him, do not tell him. 2. They ride faster than us. 3. Though the measure be mysterious, it is worthy of attention. 4. If he does but approve my endeavors, it will be an ample reward. 5. Was it him who came last? Yes, it was him. 6. I shall take care that no one shall suffer no injury. 7. Every man should act suitable to his character and station in life. 8. His arguments were exceeding clear. 9. I only spoke three words on that subject. 10. The ant and the bee sets a good example before dronish boys.

X.

1. Evil communications corrupts good manners. 2. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals whom the world ever saw. 3.

The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. 4. These are the rules of grammar, by the observing which you may avoid mistakes. 5. Take care, little children, lest the dog bites you. 6. My exercises are not well wrote, I do not hold my pen well. 7. Grammar teaches us to speak proper. 8. She accused her companion for having betrayed her. 9. I will not dissent with her. 10. Who shall I give it to?

XI.

1. Who are you looking for? 2. That is a book which I am much pleased with. 3. That picture of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. 4. Everything that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. 5. It is not him they blame so much. 6. No people has more faults than they that pretend to have none. 7. The laws of Draco is said to have been wrote with blood. 8. It is so clear, or so obvious, as I need not explain it. 9. She taught him and I to read. 10. The greater a bad man's accomplishments are, the more dangerous he is to society, and the more less fit for a companion.

XII.

1. Each has their own faults, and every one should endeavor to correct their own. 2. Let your promises be few, and such that you can perform. 3. His being at enmity with Cæsar and Antony were the cause of perpetual discord. 4. Their being forced to their books in an age at enmity with all restraint have been the reason why many have hated books all their lives. 5. Do not despise the state of the poor, lest it becomes your own condition. 6. It was his duty to have interposed his authority in an affair of so much importance. 7. He spent his whole life in the doing good. 8. Every gentleman who frequented the house, and conversed with the erectors of this occasional club, were invited to pass an evening when they thought fit. 9. The winter has not been so severe as we expected it to have been. 10. A lampoon, or a satire, does not carry in them robbery or murder.

XIII.

1. She and you were not mistaken in her conjectures. 2. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in their respec-

tive occupations. 3. He repents him of that indiscreet action. 4. It was me, and not him, that wrote it. 5. Art thou him? 6. I am a man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment. 7. Prosperity, as truly asserted by Seneca, it very much obstructs the knowledge of ourselves. 8. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, it is our duty. 9. This grammar was purchased at Ogle's the bookseller's. 10. The council was not unanimous.

XIV.

1. Who spilt the ink upon the table? Him. 2. Who lost this book? Me. 3. Whose pen is this? Johns. 4. There is, in fact, no impersonal verbs in any language. 5. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description. 6. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. 7. A prudent wife, she shall be blessed. 8. The house you speak of, it cost me five thousand dollars. 9. Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion also favored his cause. 10. The vicious inclined dog was shot before he had bit any of the children.

XV.

1. This palace has been the grand Sultan's Mahomet's. 2. They did not every man cast away the abomination of their eyes. 3. Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's. 4. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. 5. The time of William making the experiment at length arrived. 6. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. 7. This picture of the king's does not much resemble him. 8. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy. 9. I offer observations, that a long and checkered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. 10. Clelia is a vain woman, who, if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted.

XVI.

1. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. 2. He acted conformable with his instructions, and

cannot be censured justly. 3. No person could speak stronger, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate, for the cause of true religious toleration. 4. They were studious to ingratiate with those who it was dishonorable to favor. 5. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. 6. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. 7. Many would exchange gladly their honors, beauty, and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station, which thou art now dissatisfied with. 8. High hopes and florid views is a great enemy to tranquillity. 9. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. 10. I will lie me down in peace, and take my rest.

XVII.

1. This word I have only found in Spenser. 2. The king being apprised of the conspiracy, he fled from Jerusalem. 3. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. 4. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. 5. They admired the countryman's, as they called him, candor and uprightness. 6. The pleasure or pain of one passion differ from those of another. 7. The court of Spain, who gave the order, were not aware of the consequences. 8. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question; but I have chose to suspend my decision. 9. Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth; this opens for them a prospect to the skies. 10. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health.

XVIII.

1. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. 2. As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him. 3. They were judged every man according to their works. 4. Riches is the bane of human happiness. 5. When Garrick appeared, Peter was for some time in doubt whether it could be him or not. 6. The company was very numerous. 7. Robert Burns' poetry was remarkable. 8. Chambers' Cyclopædia is a valuable work. 9. They were obliged to contribute

more than us. 10. The Barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families.

XIX.

1. The sewers must be kept so clear, as the water may run away. 2. Such among us who follow that business should abandon it at once. 3. No body is so sanguine to hope for it. 4. She behaved unkindly than I expected. 5. Agreeable to your request I send this letter. 6. She is exceeding fair. 7. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. 8. There was no other book but this. 9. He died by a fever. 10. My sister and I waited till they were called.

XX.

1. The friends and amusements which he preferred corrupted his morals. / 2. Henry, though at first he showed an unwillingness, yet afterwards he granted her request. 3. Him and her live very happily together. 4. She invited Jane and I to see her new dress. 5. She uttered such cries that pierced the heart of every one who heard them. 6. Maria is not as clever as her sister Ann. 7. Though he promises ever so solemnly, I will not believe him. 8. The full moon was no sooner up, in all its brightness, but he opened to them the gate of paradise. 9. It rendered the progress very slow of the new invention. 10. This book is Thomas', that is James'.

XXI.

1. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference? 2. George was the most diligent scholar whom I ever knew. 3. I have observed some children to use deceit. 4. He durst not to displease his master. 5. The hopeless delinquents might, each in their turn, adopt the expostulatory language of Job. 6. Several of our English words, some centuries ago, had different meanings to those they have now. 7. With this booty, he made off to a distant part of the country, where he had reason to believe that neither he nor his master were known. 8. I live at Philadelphia. 9. Which of the two masters, says Seneca, shall we most esteem? He who strives to correct his scholars by prudent advice and motives of honor, or another who will lash them severely for not repeating their lessons as they ought! 10. But

she always behaved with great severity to her maids; and if any one of them were negligent of their duty, or made a slip in their conduct, nothing would serve her but burying the poor girl alive.

XXII.

1. They that honor me, I will honor. 2. Bring Charles' book with you, when you come. 3. The first Christians of the gentile world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than that of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament. 4. The Duke had not behaved with that loyalty as was expected. 5. Milton seems to have been well acquainted with his own genius, and to know what it was that nature had bestowed upon him more bountifully than upon others. 6. He only promised me a loan of the book for two days. 7. I once intended to have written a poem. 8. A very slow child will often be found to get lessons by heart as soon as, nay, sometimes sooner, than one who is ten times as intelligent. 9. It is then from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain those powers of conception which are essential to taste. 10. Every one, man or woman, thinks their own opinion is right; if they thought it wrong, it would no longer be their opinion; but there is a wide difference between regarding ourselves infallible, and being firmly convinced of the truth of our creed.

XXIII.

1. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely. 2. There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man, but there are none so useful, as discretion. 3. Frequent commission of crimes harden the heart. 4. In our earliest youth the contagion of manners are observable. 5. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. 6. A few pangs of conscience now and then interrupts his pleasure, and whispers to him that he once had better thoughts. 7. There is more cultivators of the earth than of their own hearts. 8. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. 9. Not one of those whom thou sees clothed in purple are happy. 10. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

II. ANALYSIS.

General Observations.

1. THE word Analysis is from the Greek *ἀνάλυσις*, dissolution, taking apart, or separation of a compound into its constituent parts.

2. Analysis, in grammar, treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

3. The Analysis of sentences is a matter of logic rather than of grammar. Some attention to Analysis, however, even in elementary studies, is important. By means of it, the syntactical relations of words are more clearly apprehended. It helps also to cultivate the logical faculty, which is at the basis of all sound knowledge.

4. The study of Analysis may precede that of Syntax, or may follow it. There are advantages and disadvantages in either course. The subject is presented in a separate chapter, so that the teacher may follow his judgment in the matter.

5. The subject is divided into three heads, 1. Parts of a Sentence, 2. Kinds of Sentences, 3. Explanation of Terms.



I. PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

A Sentence is a number of words put together so as to make complete sense; as, "Man is mortal."

Note. — A sentence may consist of a single word; as, "Depart."

The Essential Parts of a sentence are two, The Subject and the Predicate.

The Subject is that of which something is affirmed.

The Predicate is what is affirmed or asserted of the Subject.

In the sentence, "Man lives," *man* is the Subject, *lives* is the Predicate.

There cannot be a sentence without a Subject, expressed or understood.

In the sentence, "*Depart*," the Subject is *thou* or *you* understood.

There cannot be a sentence without a Predicate, expressed or understood.

A Subject and a Predicate, together, make a sentence.

I. THE SUBJECT.

Distinction of Grammatical Subject and Logical Subject.

The Grammatical Subject is simply the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb.

Examples.—" *Man* lives." "The good old *man* still lives." "*He* lives." "*He*, the eloquent and able defender of Christianity, still lives." In the first two examples, the Grammatical Subject is *man*; in the other two, it is *he*.

The Logical Subject is not simply the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb, but includes also all the attendant words which modify in any way the meaning of the nominative.

In the second example above, the Logical Subject is *The good old man*; in the fourth example, it is *He, the eloquent and able defender of Christianity*.

The Logical Subject, then, includes all the words which, taken together, form the subject of discourse.

The Logical Subject is the one treated of in Analysis.

In the remainder of this chapter, it will be understood that the term Subject, unless otherwise specified, means the Logical Subject.

The Subject is of three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

I. SIMPLE SUBJECTS.

A Simple Subject is a single noun or pronoun, with no modifying word or words, and nominative to the verb.

The Logical Subject and the Grammatical Subject are here the same.

Examples.—"James wrote the letter." "He wrote the letter." "Henry Clay rose in his place, and addressed the House." "Rivers flow into the sea."

II. COMPLEX SUBJECTS.

A Complex Subject is one in which the noun or pronoun nominative to the verb is accompanied by some other word or words which in some way limit or modify its meaning.

Example.—"The miserable man, overwhelmed with debt, and convicted of crime, lived a most unhappy life." Here the subject is "man" with all the other accompanying words in italics. These accompanying words modify or limit the word "man." They all, taken together, form the subject of which the affirmation is made.

Adjuncts to the Subject.

Adjuncts are the accompanying words which make a Subject complex.

The Adjuncts of the Subject are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

A Phrase is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate-verb, and not making by themselves complete sense.

A Clause is a number of words, connected in meaning, and containing a verb with its subject, and so making by themselves complete sense, but not independent, being used to modify or qualify some other word.

The following are examples of each of these three kinds of adjuncts.

1. **Single Words.**—“*The good man has departed.*” Here “the” and “good” are single words, modifying or qualifying the subject “man.”

2. **Phrases.**—“*The good man, in the midst of his usefulness, has departed.*” Here the words, “in the midst of his usefulness,” form a modifying or qualifying phrase.

3. **Clauses.**—“*The good man, who had gained great renown, departed.*” Here the words, “who had gained great renown,” form a modifying or qualifying clause.

Ways in which Adjuncts modify the Subject.

The Subject is modified by Adjuncts, as follows:

1. By an article; as, “*The man has arrived.*”
2. By an adjective; as, “*Good men are few.*”
3. By a noun or pronoun in apposition; as, “*James Brown, artist, is dead*”; “*Elizabeth herself has arrived.*”
4. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive; as, “*Winter’s frosts have disappeared*”; “*Your time has come.*”
5. By a preposition and its object; as, “*Frosts of winter disappear.*”
6. By a participle; as, “*Brothers divided are a sad sight.*”
7. By a verb in the infinitive; as, “*The time to study should not be lost.*”
8. By a clause; as, “*Lessons which are easy are apt to be neglected*”; “*The fear that he might be detected kept him from committing the crime.*”



Model.—“A large increase of wealth might make him careless.”

In this sentence,

1. The simple subject is *increase*.
2. Its adjuncts or modifiers are the article *a*, the adjective *large*, and the preposition and its object, *of wealth*.
3. The whole complex subject is *a large increase of wealth*.

Exercises.—Give, (1.) The simple subject, (2.) The adjuncts or modifiers of the simple subject, (3.) The whole complex subject, in each of the following sentences:

1. The thorough knowledge of Scripture helps us in understanding all other truth.

2. An anxious desire to do right was manifest in all his conduct.

3. James's impetuous disposition, which ought to have been checked, was allowed to have free sway.

4. The great apostle Paul himself was subject to calumny.

5. A selfish desire for wealth, unchecked, is apt to pervert the moral principles.

Ways in which the Adjuncts of the Subject are modified by other Adjuncts.

Adjuncts of the Subject may themselves be modified by other words, as follows:

1. A Noun used as an adjunct of the subject may be modified in all respects as the principal noun.

Example.—"James Applegate, the old *man* that you spoke of, has left for parts unknown."

2. An Adjective used as an adjunct of the subject may be modified, (1.) By a preposition and its object, (2.) By an infinitive, (3.) By an adverb.

Examples.—"A man merciful *in disposition*." "A man quick *to resent injury*." "A *very* abundant harvest."

Note.—An adverb used to modify an adjunct adjective may itself be modified, (1.) By another adverb, (2.) By a preposition and its object. Examples: "*Most* thoroughly wicked"; "An essay replete, agreeably *to expectation*, with varied knowledge."

3. A Participle, or an Infinitive, used as an adjunct of the subject, may be modified, (1.) By an object, (2.) By a preposition with its object, (3.) By an infinitive, (4.) By an adverb.

Examples of the Participle.—"The man, having written *the letter*, mailed it." "The man, living *in ease*, became indolent." "The man, wishing *to sleep*, retired to his room." "The man, *thoroughly* frightened, fled from the house."

Examples of the Infinitive.—"A desire *to gain honor*." "A desire *to live in ease*." "A resolution *to cease to do evil*." "A resolution *to cease immediately* from evil courses."

NOTES.

1. A Participle, or an Infinitive, with its adjuncts, may be used as a subject; as, "*Learning Latin thoroughly* requires much time." "*To learn Latin thoroughly* requires much time."

2. A Participle, when used as a subject, may be modified by a noun, or an adjective, having no other grammatical dependence; as, "*Being a hero* requires courage," "*Being heroic* requires courage."

3. An Infinitive, when used as a subject, may be modified by a noun, an adjective, or a participle, having no other grammatical dependence; as, "*To be a hero* requires courage," "*To be heroic* requires courage," "*To live constantly fearing* death requires patience."

4. The Participle or Infinitive, in these cases, must belong to an intransitive verb, or to the passive voice. See Syntax, p. 126.



Model. -- "The desire of the aspiring boy to receive in his youth a suitable education was natural."

In this sentence,

1. The simple subject is *desire* ("desire was natural").

2. The adjuncts or modifiers of this subject are the following:

(a) The article *the* ("the desire").

(b) The preposition and its object, *of boy*, ("the desire of boy.")

(c) The infinitive *to receive* ("The desire of boy to receive").

3. The adjuncts are themselves modified by other adjuncts, as follows:

(a) The adjunct *of boy* is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *aspiring* ("of the aspiring boy").

(b) The adjunct *to receive* is modified by the object *education* and the preposition and its object, *in youth* ("to receive in youth education").

(c) The adjunct *in youth* is modified by the possessive pronoun *his* ("in his youth").

(d) The adjunct *education* is modified by the article *a* and the adjective *suitable* ("a suitable education").

4. The whole complex subject is, *The desire of the aspiring boy to receive in his youth a suitable education.*

Exercises. — Give, (1.) The simple subject, (2.) Its adjuncts or modifiers, (3.) The adjuncts of the adjuncts, (4.) The whole complex subject, in each of the following sentences:

1. The earnest conviction of Christopher Columbus that he would reach land by sailing westward led to the discovery of the new world.

2. Paul, the apostle of the gentiles, rejoicing steadfastly in the hope set before him, suffered martyrdom.

3. The birds with their bright feathers, sailing through the air, gladden the heart of man.

4. Careless of fame, the youth pursues the even tenor of his way.

5. In the centre was a vast hollow square filled with innumerable flowering plants.

Note. — The Subject is often transposed and placed after the predicate, as in this last example.

III. COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

A Compound Subject is one which consists of two or more subjects, whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions.

NOTES.

1. Sometimes the separate subjects which form the Compound subject may make separate sentences, by repeating the predicate.

Example. — “Lakes and oceans are large bodies of water.” This may be separated into two sentences, thus: “Lakes are large bodies of water,” “Oceans are large bodies of water.”

2. Sometimes the several subjects cannot be thus separated, because the predicate does not admit of it.

Example. — “The Raritan river, the Delaware river, and the connecting canal, form a continuous line of inland navigation between New York and Philadelphia.” Here the predicate is true of the compound subject as a whole, but not of any one of the single subjects taken by itself.

3. This separation into distinct sentences may be made whenever the predicate is true of each subject taken by itself, but cannot be made when the predicate is true of the different subjects only when taken together as a whole.

4. Each of the separate subjects which form a compound subject may be complex, and as such may be modified by adjuncts in all the different ways already described under the head of Complex Subjects. It is not necessary to give separate examples.

II. THE PREDICATE.

Distinction of Grammatical Predicate and Logical Predicate.

The Grammatical Predicate is simply the finite verb to which the noun or pronoun forming the grammatical subject is nominative.

Examples.—“The man *lives*.” “The man *has* at length *reached* home safely.” “Cæsar *was* the conqueror of Gaul.” The grammatical predicates here are the verbs *lives*, *has reached*, and *was*.

The Logical Predicate is not simply the verb to which the noun or pronoun is nominative, but includes also all the attendant words which modify in any way the meaning of the verb.

In the second example above, the Logical predicate is, *has at length reached home safely*; in the third example it is, *was the conqueror of Gaul*.

The Logical Predicate, then, includes all the words which, taken together, tell what is said or affirmed of the subject.

The Logical Predicate is the one treated of in Analysis.

The Predicate is of three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

I. SIMPLE PREDICATES.

A Simple Predicate is a single finite verb, having some noun or pronoun for its nominative.

The Logical Predicate and the Grammatical Predicate here are the same.

Examples.—“The sun *has risen*.” “The illustrious general, who had been victorious in a hundred fights, *was defeated*.”

II. COMPLEX PREDICATES.

A Complex Predicate is one in which the predicate verb is accompanied by some other word or words which in some way limit or modify its meaning.

Example.—"The life of such a man *will at length come to an end in the midst of shame and sorrow.*" Here the predicate is the verb "will come" with all the other accompanying words in italics. These accompanying words modify or limit the verb "will come." They all, taken together, form the affirmation which is made in regard to "the life of such a man."

Adjuncts to the Predicate.

Adjuncts are the accompanying words which make a Predicate complex.

The Adjuncts of the Predicate are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

The following are examples of each of these three kinds of adjuncts:

1. **Single Words.**—"The old man went *back slowly.*" Here "back" and "slowly" are single words modifying or qualifying the predicate "went."

2. **Phrases.**—"The old man went *to his home in great wrath.*" Here the phrases, "to his home," and "in great wrath," modify the predicate "went."

3. **Clauses.**—"The man lived in the house *which was upon the hill-side.*" Here the clause, "which was upon the hill-side," is one of the modifiers of the predicate "lived."

Ways in which Adjuncts modify the Predicate.

The Predicate is modified by Adjuncts, as follows:

1. By an adjective belonging to the subject-nominative; as, "Good men are *few.*" The adjective in this case is called the adjective-predicate, and is parsed as belonging to the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb.

2. By a participle belonging to the subject-nominative; as, "He sat *watching.*"

3. By a noun or pronoun in the nominative after the verb; as,

"The men have become *drunkards*," "It is *I*." The noun or pronoun in this case is called the nominative-predicate.

Note 1.—The nominative-predicate after a verb is sometimes introduced by the conjunction *as*. "He was regarded *as* a scholar."

Note 2.—A noun or pronoun can be nominative-predicate only after intransitive verbs and after the passive voice of transitive verbs; as, "He was called a *villain*."

Note 3.—A noun-predicate after an infinitive may be in the objective, if the word which it represents is in the objective; as, "We allowed *them* to become *drunkards*."

4. By a noun or pronoun which is the object of the verb; as, "We saw *him*," "We heard *noises*."

Note.—An objective-predicate can occur only after a transitive verb in the active voice, or after an intransitive verb having the same meaning as the object; as, "He *runs* a race."

5. By a preposition with its object; as, "The man has gone *to town*."

6. By a verb in the infinitive; as, "He continued *to move*."

7. By an adverb; as, "He writes *rapidly*."

8. By a clause; as, "He asked *that the time might be extended*."



Model.—"No man can truly say that he is without sin."

In this sentence,

1. The simple predicate is *can say*.
2. Its adjuncts or modifiers are the adverb *truly*, and the clause, *that he is without sin*.

3. The whole complex predicate is, *can truly say that he is without sin*.

Exercises.—Give, (1.) The simple predicate, (2.) The adjuncts or modifiers of the simple predicate, (3.) The whole complex predicate, in each of the following sentences:

1. Wealth begets desire for wealth.
2. Men of learning have often been unwise.
3. The lark rises toward heaven singing.

4. Fishes glide rapidly through water by swimming.

5. Christopher Columbus believed after study that the earth was round.

Ways in which the Adjuncts of the Predicate are modified by other Adjuncts.

Adjuncts of the predicate may themselves be modified by other words.

The several parts of speech, when used as adjuncts to the predicate, are modified in the same manner as the same words are when used as adjuncts to the subject. It is not necessary, therefore, to enumerate them in detail.



Model.—“The wrestler found at length a young man willing to compete with him.”

In this sentence,

1. The simple predicate is the verb *found* (“wrestler found”).

2. The adjuncts or modifiers of this predicate are the following:

(a) The noun *man*, object of the verb (“wrestler found man”).

(b) The preposition and its object, *at length* (“The wrestler found at length man”).

3. The adjuncts are themselves modified by other adjuncts, as follows:

(a) The adjunct *man* is modified by the article *a* and the adjectives *young* and *willing* (“a young man willing”).

(b) The adjunct *willing* is itself modified by the infinitive *to compete*, and that again by the preposition and object *with him* (“willing to compete with him”).

4. The whole complex predicate is, *found at length a young man willing to compete with him*.

Exercises.—Give, (1.) The simple predicate, (2.) Its adjuncts or modifiers, (3.) The adjuncts of the adjuncts, (4.) The whole complex predicate, in each of the following sentences:

1. The silver mines of Mexico and Peru far exceed in value the whole of the European and Asiatic mines.

2. The distance from the earth to the sun is, in round numbers, one hundred millions of miles.

3. The ordinary processes of direct instruction are of immense importance, presupposing in the mind to which they are applied an active co-operation.

4. The faith of the first Christians expressed itself in vehement reaction against the prevailing tendencies of an exceedingly corrupt civilization.

5. The genius for disorder, which shows itself in some young persons, is not a hopeful sign for their future comfort in life.

Review Exercises.—Give, (1.) The simple *subject*, (2.) Its adjuncts, (3.) The adjuncts of the adjuncts, (4.) The whole complex subject, in each of the foregoing sentences.

III. COMPOUND PREDICATES.

A Compound Predicate is one which consists of two or more predicates, whether simple or complex, united by one or more conjunctions.

NOTES.

1. The several predicates which form the compound predicate may generally make separate sentences, by repeating the subject.

Examples.—"The Atlantic ocean is the large body of water lying between Europe and America, and is traversed continually by steamers and sailing vessels." This may be separated into two distinct sentences, thus: "The Atlantic ocean is the large body of water lying between Europe and America." "The Atlantic ocean is traversed continually by steamers and sailing vessels."

"Drunkenness enslaves and debases a man." This may be separated into the two sentences, "Drunkenness enslaves a man," "Drunkenness debases a man."

2. Each of the separate predicates which form a compound predicate may be complex, and as such may be modified by adjuncts, in all the different ways described under the head of Complex Predicates. It is not necessary to give separate examples.

II. KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Two Ways of Classifying Sentences.

Sentences are divided into classes or kinds, first in reference to their use, secondly in reference to their structure.

I. Sentences, as to their use, are divided into three kinds, namely, Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative.

A Declarative Sentence is one which is used simply to declare or deny.

A Declarative sentence must always contain a verb in the Indicative or the Potential mood; as, "He has not failed," "A life spent in doing good could not be a failure."

Note.—In the preceding part of this chapter, explaining the Parts of a Sentence, all the examples given have been Declarative Sentences. For the purposes of illustration, they are more convenient than examples of the other kinds of sentences.

An Interrogative Sentence is one which is used to ask a question.

• An Interrogative sentence must always contain a verb in the Indicative or the Potential mood; as, "Has he failed?" "Could a life spent in doing good be a failure?"

An Imperative Sentence is one which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit.

An Imperative sentence must always contain a verb in the Imperative mood; as, "Write the copy according to your directions," "Father, forgive us," "Go, if you desire it."

II. Sentences, as to their structure, are divided into three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

This second division of sentences requires a more distinct consideration.

I. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A Simple Sentence is one which contains but one subject and one predicate.

The subject and the predicate may have any kind and degree of complexity, except that arising from the introduction of a clause, and yet the sentence be simple.

"The Delaware, the Raritan, and the connecting canal form a continuous line of navigation." This is a simple sentence, because, although three things are named, they constitute but one inseparable subject. The proposition would not be true, if made of any one of them separately.

"Lakes and oceans are large bodies of water." This is not simple, because it may be resolved into the two sentences, "Lakes are large bodies of water," "Oceans are large bodies of water."

"A canoe which is made of bark is easily broken." This is not simple, because the subject is modified by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *is made*, and *is broken*.

"The man learned that the canoe was made of bark." This is not simple, because the predicate is modified by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *learned*, and *was made*.

"The foolish young man, in the flush of a momentary excitement, rushing into the surging stream, at the time of high water, in a frail canoe made of bark, was rapidly whirled by the impetuosity of the descending current into the yawning abyss below." Here, both the subject and the predicate are very complex, yet the sentence is simple. It has but one subject and one predicate.

II. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A Complex Sentence is one which contains a simple sentence, with one or more clauses modifying either its subject or its predicate.

"A life which is spent in doing good cannot be a failure." This is a complex sentence, because the subject is modified by the clause, *which is spent in doing good*. The sentence thus has two predicates.

"He was at the station when the train arrived." This is complex, because the predicate is modified by the clause, *when the train arrived*. The sentence thus has two predicates.

III. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A Compound Sentence is one which contains two or more sentences, whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions.

"He left home in good season, and was at the station when the train arrived." This is a compound sentence, containing the simple sentence, *He left home in good season*, and the complex sentence, [*He*] *was at the station when the train arrived*, the two being connected by the conjunction *and*.

The sentences which compose a Compound Sentence are called its Members.



III. EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

The terms Phrase, Clause, and Member frequently occur in speaking of Sentences. These terms have been already defined, but some additional illustration seems desirable.

I. PHRASES.

A Phrase is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate-verb, and not making by themselves complete sense.

The principal Phrases are the following:

1. The Appositional Phrase; as, "*June, the month of roses*, has come at length."
2. The Prepositional Phrase; as, "*The cause of all this misery* was bad temper."
3. The Adjective Phrase; as, "*Youth, full of expectation*, is ever sanguine."
4. The Participial Phrase; as, "*Living on vegetables*, he was not strong."
5. The Infinitive Phrase; as, "*He determined to live on vegetables only*."
6. The Subject Phrase. This is where a Participial Phrase or an Infinitive Phrase is used as the subject to the verb; as, "*Living on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength," "*To live on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength."

7. The Absolute Phrase; as, "*The king being dead*, his oldest son succeeds to the throne."

8. The Independent Phrase. This includes all mere exclamations, and all words addressed to persons or things, and not grammatically dependent upon the other parts of the sentence; as, "*Out upon the villain!* he deserves the halter," "*Detestable villain*, you deserve the halter." These exclamations and addresses often consist of a single word; as "*Villain*, leave the house."

II. CLAUSES.

A Clause is a number of words, connected in meaning, and containing a verb with its subject, and so making by themselves complete sense, but not independent, being used to modify some other word.

The principal Clauses are the following:

1. The Relative Clause; as, "The man *who is faithful to duty* is to be honored."

2. The Appositional Clause; as, "The maxim, *Put not off till to-morrow what can be done to-day*, has much wisdom."

3. The Subject Clause; as, "*That life is uncertain* is known to all."

4. The Object Clause; as, "They knew *that the man was a villain*."

5. The Adverbial Clause; as, "He remained at the station *until the train left*."

6. The Conjunctional Clause; as, "He will meet you at the station, *if you come in time*."

III. MEMBERS.

A Member is a sentence, complete and independent in itself, and not used to modify any word or clause, yet united by a conjunction with some other sentence to form a compound sentence.

The difference between Members and Clauses is this: Members are parts of compound sentences; Clauses, of complex sentences. A Member of a sentence can stand alone as an independent sentence; a Clause, though containing a subject and predicate, is yet always dependent upon something outside of itself.

"The sun, *when it had risen*, scorched the grass." "When it had risen" cannot stand alone. It is a clause, dependent upon "sun."

"The sun had risen, and the grass was scorched." Here are two sentences, each complete and independent in itself, but both united to form a Compound sentence. These two sentences, taken separately, are called the Members of the Compound sentence.



GENERAL EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

Model.—"The esteem of wise and good men is the greatest of all temporal encouragements to virtue; and it is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard to it."

1. This is a declarative sentence, compound, and contains two members connected by the conjunction *and*.

2. The first member, "The esteem of wise and good men is the greatest of all temporal encouragements to virtue," is a simple sentence.

3. The subject, "The esteem of wise and good men," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on p. 166.

4. The predicate, "is the greatest of all encouragements to virtue," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on p. 171.

5. The second member, "it is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard to it," is a simple sentence.

6. Its subject, "it," is simple.

7. Its predicate, "is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard to it," is complex. Analyze it according to model, p. 171.

Model.—"Are the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us, mere decorations of the night, or suns and centres of planetary systems?"

1. This is an interrogative sentence, compound, and contains two members connected by the conjunction *or*.

2. The first member, "Are the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us, mere decorations of the night," is a complex sentence, containing a relative clause.

3. The subject, "the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us," is complex. Analyze, first, the subject and predicate

of the clause, and secondly, the whole complex subject, according to the models, pp. 166 and 171.

4. The predicate, "are mere decorations of the night," is complex. Analyze it according to model, p. 171.

5. The second member, supplying the ellipsis, "[are they] suns and centres of planetary systems," is a simple sentence. Analyze its subject and predicate according to the models already given.

Exercises. — Analyze in the same manner the following sentences:

1. The wind and rain are over; calm is the noon of day; the clouds are divided in heaven; and over the green hill flies the inconstant sun.

2. The look that is fixed on immortality wears not a perpetual smile; and eyes, through which shines the light of other worlds, are often dimmed with tears.

3. Books are standing counsellors and preachers, always at hand, and always disinterested; having this advantage over oral instructors, that they are ready to repeat their lesson as often as we please.

4. Can we imagine that God's highest gifts of intelligence, imagination, and moral power, were intended to provide only for animal wants?

5. Do the voice of the wise, and the arm of the brave, and the blood of the patriot go for nothing, in the wild conflict that is desolating the earth?

6. Wordsworth, in his poetry, works out wisdom as it comes from the common heart of man, and appeals to that heart in turn; causing us to recognize the truth, that there is something in humanity which deserves alike our love and reverence.

7. Give me a larger eye, and I will reveal to you another rank of worlds marshalled behind those whose shining hosts you now behold.

8. Macpherson, who has given us some highly original images, spoils half his work by forgetting that his bard was a Gaul.

9. The Greeks may well boast of having produced a Euclid, whose works are esteemed even by the profoundest mathematicians of modern times.

10. Cherish true patriotism, which has its root in benevolence; but be not blind to the defects of your country, because you were born in it.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written discourse into sections by means of points, for the purpose of showing the grammatical connection and dependence, and of making the sense more obvious.

Capitals are used for a like purpose, and, therefore, they may with propriety be treated of at the same time with the Points.

NOTES.

1. For a fuller illustration of this subject, the student is referred to the author's work on Composition and Rhetoric.

2. The word Punctuation is from the Latin *punctum*, a point. The points now used in writing were unknown to the ancients. Aristophanes, a grammarian of Alexandria, about two and a half centuries before the Christian era, introduced some of the marks now used in punctuation. But the points did not come into common use until the time of Aldus Manutius, a learned printer of Venice, who reduced the matter to a system about the year 1500, and, by the extreme beauty and accuracy of his editions, gave it general currency.

3. The word Capital is from the Latin *caput*, a head. The letters of the word or words forming the *caput*, heading, or title of a discourse, are called *head-letters*, or capitals.

4. The capital letters were those first invented, and were in use many centuries before the invention of the small letters. The oldest manuscripts now in existence, some of which date as far back as the third century, are written entirely in capitals, and are likewise almost without points, and without spacing between the words. The small letters were first introduced about the seventh century; but, for some time after the introduction of the small letters, the capitals continued to be used much more than they are now.

The principal grammatical points are five; namely,

1. The COMMA, ,
2. The SEMICOLON, ;
3. The COLON, :
4. The PERIOD, .
5. The INTERROGATION, ?

These points have various degrees of disjunctive force, in separating the parts of a sentence from each other. This force may be expressed briefly, as follows : The Period, except when used for an abbreviation, marks the greatest separation of all, the parts between which it is placed being thereby rendered grammatically entirely independent of each other; the Colon marks a separation somewhat less than that of the Period; the Semicolon, less than that of the Colon; and the Comma, less than that of the Semicolon. The Interrogation, though usually counted as equivalent to a period, may be equivalent to a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, according to circumstances.

Besides the five points already named, several other characters are used for similar purposes. The most common of these are the following :

The EXCLAMATION,	!
The DASH,	—
The PARENTHESIS,	()
The BRACKET,	[]
The QUOTATION,	“ ”
The APOSTROPHE,	'



I. THE COMMA.

The Comma marks the smallest of the grammatical divisions of discourse that require a point.

The word Comma (Greek κόμμα, from κόπτω, to cut) denotes something cut off, a section. It was used originally to denote, not the mark, but the portion of the sentence thus set off. The same is true of the words semicolon and colon. They meant originally portions of discourse, not, as now, the marks by which those portions are set off. Period, Interrogation, Parenthesis, and some other like words, are used in both senses; they mean portions of discourse, and also the marks by which those portions are set off.

RULE I.

Parenthetical Expressions.—Phrases and single words, used parenthetically, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Phrases and words are parenthetical when they are not essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence in which they stand. Such words and phrases belong rather to some unexpressed thought that is in the mind, than to the thought actually expressed. Thus, "It is mind, *after all*, which does the work of the world." Here the phrase "after all" does not belong to the verb "does." The author does not mean to say that mind does the work of the world, after doing everything else. In like manner, it does not modify any other part of the expressed sentence. On the contrary, it belongs to some unexpressed thought, as though we were to say, "After all *that can be claimed for other agents*, we may still claim for the mind, that it does the work of the world." Sometimes the parenthetical word or phrase refers to what is expressed in the preceding sentence. Thus, "The danger was fully explained to him. His passions, *however*, prevented his seeing it." Parenthetical expressions, then, are such as are not necessary to the structure and meaning of the sentence in which they stand, if taken alone, but they are a part of the machinery, so to speak, by which the sentence is connected with some preceding sentence, or with some unexpressed sentence or thought existing in the mind of the writer. They are, in fact, of a conjunctive, rather than of an adverbial character.

Some of the phrases in common use, which require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following:

in short,	in truth,	to be sure,
in fact,	as it were,	to be brief,
in fine,	as it happens,	after all,
in reality,	no doubt,	you know,
in brief,	in a word,	of course.

Some of the single words used parenthetically, and often separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following:

therefore,	namely,	moreover,
then,	consequently,	surely,
however,	indeed,	accordingly,
perhaps,	too,	finally.

Examples for Practice.

1. Gentleness is in truth, the great avenue to real enjoyment.
2. The locomotive bellows, as it were, from the fury of passion.
3. He knows very well, come what may, that the note will be paid.
4. He had no doubt, great aptitude for learning languages.

5. He went home accordingly and arranged his business in the manner described.

6. There are in truth only two things to be considered namely his honesty and his ability.

7. No nation in short is free from danger.

8. When however the hour for the trial came, the man was not to be found.

9. I proceed fourthly to prove the fact from your own admissions.

10. But on the other hand do not suppose that there is no use in trying.

11. The meeting after all was something of a failure.

12. Besides it may be of the greatest importance to you in your business.

RULE II.

Intermediate Expressions.—Clauses and expressions, not parenthetical in character, yet so placed as to come between some of the essential parts of the sentence, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Care should be taken to distinguish these intermediate expressions from such as are properly restrictive in their character. An expression is restrictive, when it limits the meaning of some particular word to some particular sense. Thus, "The man who plants the field ought to reap the harvest." Here it is not "the man" merely, but "the man who plants the field," that is the subject of "ought." A separation of the relative and its adjuncts from "man," by means of commas, would destroy the sense. The clause, therefore, is restrictive. It limits the meaning to that particular man. But suppose I say, "Joseph, who happened to be in the field at the time, saw the carriage approach, and, in an ecstasy of delight, hastened to meet it." Here, the expression, "who happened to be in the field at the time," is properly a relative clause not restrictive, and comes under Rule IV.; and the expression, "in an ecstasy of delight," is properly intermediate, and comes under Rule II. The former breaks the continuity between the subject and the predicate; the latter, between the two predicates.

Examples for Practice.

1. Classical studies regarded merely as a means of culture are deserving of general attention.

2. The sun with all its train of attendant planets is but a small and inconsiderable portion of the universe.

3. We have endeavored in the preceding paragraph to show the incorrectness of his position.

4. The speaker proceeded with the greatest animation to depict the horrors of the scene.

5. Christianity is in a most important sense the religion of sorrow.

6. A man of great wealth may for want of education and refinement of manner be a mere cipher in society.

7. Charity, on whatever side we contemplate, it is one of the highest Christian graces.

8. One hour a day steadily given to a particular study will bring in time large accumulations.

RULE III.

Dependent or Conditional Clauses.—A dependent or conditional clause should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or by commas.

NOTES.

1. Clauses are dependent, when one of them is subject to the other for the completion of the sense.

2. One of the dependent clauses usually begins with *if*, *unless*, *until*, *when*, *where*, or other word expressive of condition, purpose, cause, time, place, and the like; as, "If you would succeed in business, be honest and industrious."

Examples for Practice.

[**Note.**—In punctuating these examples and those which are to follow, insert not only the points required by the rule under consideration, but also those required by the preceding rules.]

1. If you would succeed in business be punctual in observing your engagements.

2. Every man if he would succeed in business must be punctual in observing his engagements.

3. The days in December you know are at their shortest and therefore you must rise by the dawn if you would have much daylight.

4. The index at the end of the book will enable the pupil if his memory fail him to discover the particular rule which he needs.

5. The reader should however as he proceeds from sentence to sentence make a note of whatever strikes his attention.

6. The good which you do, may not be lost though it may be forgotten.

7. We should in all probability be ashamed of much that we boast of could the world see our real motive.

RULE IV.

Relative Clauses not Restrictive.—Clauses introduced by a relative pronoun, if not restrictive, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

NOTES.

1. See Note under Rule II., for an explanation of what is meant by restrictive clauses.

2. A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if it is immediately followed by a word or a phrase inclosed in commas; as, "Those friends, who, *in the native vigor of his powers*, perceived the dawn of Robertson's future eminence, were at length amply rewarded."

3. A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if several words intervene between it and its grammatical antecedent; as, "He preaches most eloquently, who leads the most pious life."

4. *Of which* and *of whom*, even when used restrictively, are preceded by a comma; as, "No thought can be just, of which good sense is not the groundwork."

Examples for Practice.

1. A fierce spirit of rivalry which is at all times a dangerous passion had now taken full possession of him.

2. The spirit which actuated him was a thirst for vengeance.

3. The man of letters who has constantly before him examples of excellence ought himself to be a pattern of excellence.

4. Patriotism consists in loving the country in which we are born.

5. Civil war is an awful evil of which however history furnishes many examples.

6. No man can be thoroughly proficient in navigation who has never been at sea.

7. The powers which now move the world are the printing-press and the telegraph.

8. America may well boast of her Washington whose character and fame are the common property of the world.

RULE V.

A Continued Sentence consisting of Co-ordinate Sentences.—In a continued sentence, consisting of co-ordinate sentences, the several co-ordinate sentences, if simple in construction, are separated from each other by commas.

If, however, these co-ordinate sentences are complex and involved, especially if they have commas within themselves, the sentences should be separated by a semicolon; as, "Crafty men, though they may pretend otherwise, contemn studies; simple men, though they really care nothing about the matter, yet pretend to admire them; wise men use them."

Examples for Practice.

1. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them.
2. Speak as you mean do as you profess perform what you promise.
3. Cæsar was dead the senators were dispersed all Rome was in confusion.

RULE VI.

Grammatical Expressions in the same Construction forming a Series.—Grammatical expressions in the same construction forming a series should be separated from each other, and from what follows, by commas.

NOTES.

1. A grammatical expression is a collection of words, having some grammatical dependence and connection, but not containing in themselves a predicate.
2. If the expressions are brief, and there are but two of them, connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, no comma between them is needed; as, "Hard study and neglect of exercise impair the health." If, however, the two connected expressions differ much in form, it is better to set them off by commas; as, "Hard study, and the entire absence of attention to the matter of diet, bring on disease."

Examples for Practice.

1. Love for study a desire to do right and carefulness in the choice of friends are important traits of character.

2. To cleanse our opinions from falsehood our hearts from malignity and our actions from vice is our chief concern.

3. Did God create for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky?

4. Infinite space endless numbers and eternal duration fill the mind with great ideas.

RULE VII.

Words in the same Construction forming a Series.

— Words in the same construction, forming a series, admit of the following three cases:—

1. There may be a conjunction between each two of the words; as, "Industry and honesty and frugality and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, none of the words in the series are to be separated by commas.

2. The conjunction may be omitted, except between the last two of the words; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, all the words are to be separated from each other by commas.

3. The conjunction may be omitted between the last two words, as well as between the others; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, temperance, are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, not only all the words of the series are to be separated from each other by commas, but a comma is to be inserted also after the last word, to separate it from what follows.

A comma is not in any case to be inserted after the last word of a series, if what follows is only a single word; as, "The good will form hereafter stronger, purer, holier ties."

Examples for Practice.

1. He was brave and pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.

2. He was brave pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.

3. He was brave pious patriotic in all his aspirations.

4. He was a brave pious patriotic man.

5. Aright aleft above below he whirled the rapid sword.
6. The address was beautifully elegantly and forcibly written.
7. We are fearfully wonderfully made.
8. Virtue religion is the one thing needful.
9. Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down.
10. The earth the air the water teem with life.
11. Grand ideas and sentiments elevate and ennoble the mind.

RULE VIII.

Words or Phrases in Pairs.—Words or phrases in pairs take a comma after each pair.

Examples for Practice.

1. Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war.
2. Truth and integrity, kindness and modesty, reverence and devotion were all remarked in him.
3. The poor and the rich, the weak and the strong, the young and the old have one common Father.
4. Eating or drinking, laboring or sleeping let us do all in moderation.

RULE IX.

Nouns in Apposition.—A Noun in apposition to some preceding noun or pronoun, and having an adjunct consisting of several words, should, with all its connected words, be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

NOTES.

1. Where the noun put in apposition stands alone, or has only an article before it, no comma is required between said noun and the word with which it is in apposition; as, "Paul the apostle was a man of energy."
2. A noun following another as a synonym, or as giving additional illustration to the thought, is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma before and after; as "The word Poet, meaning a maker, a creator, is derived from the Greek."
3. When a noun is predicated of the noun or pronoun with which it is in apposition, no comma is required between them; as, "They have just elected him Governor of the State."

4. After several words containing a description of a person or thing, if the name of the person or thing is added, it should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "The greatest of poets among the ancients, Homer, like the greatest among the moderns, Milton, was blind."

5. A title, whether abbreviated or expressed in full, when annexed to a noun or pronoun, must be set off by commas; as, "At the request of the Rt. Rev. W. H. Odenheimer, D. D., the ceremony was postponed."

Examples for Practice.

1. We the people of the United States do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution.

2. Virgil the chief poet among the Romans was fond of rural life.

3. To call a man a fool is not to make him one.

4. The chief work of Chaucer the Canterbury Tales suggested to Longfellow the plan of his work the Tales of a Wayside Inn.

5. John Chapman Doctor of Medicine. John Chapman M. D.

RULE X.

The Vocative Case.—A noun in the vocative case, or case independent, as it is called, together with its adjunct words, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or by commas.

Examples for Practice.

1. Accept my dear young friends, this expression of my regard.

2. I beg sir, to acknowledge the receipt of your favor.

3. I rise, Mr. President, to a point of order.

4. Show pity Lord! O Lord forgive!

5. Remember sir you cannot have it.

RULE XI.

The Case Absolute.—A clause containing the construction known as the case absolute should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or by commas.

Examples for Practice.

1. Then came Jesus the doors being shut and stood in the midst.
2. A state of ease is generally speaking more attainable than a state of pleasure.
3. Shame lost all virtue is lost.
4. His father being dead the prince ascended the throne.
5. I being in the way the Lord led me to the house of my master's brother.

RULE XII.

Inverted Clauses.—Inverted clauses, standing at the beginning of a sentence, are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

NOTES.

1. The infinitive mood, especially when used to express object or design, is often inverted in this way; as, "To obtain an education, he was willing to make sacrifices."
2. In making alphabetical catalogues, compound names, such as John Quincy Adams, are usually inverted, that is, the last word in the name, being the principal one, is put first, and is then separated from the other parts of the name by a comma; as, Adams, John Quincy.

Examples for Practice.

1. Awkward in person he was ill adapted to gain respect.
2. Of all our senses sight is the most important.
3. To supply the deficiency he resorted to a shameful trick.
4. Living in filth the poor cease to respect one another.
5. To confess the truth I never greatly admired him.

RULE XIII.

Ellipsis of the Verb.—In continued sentences, having a common verb, which is expressed in one of the members, but omitted in the others, the ellipsis of the verb is marked by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; writing an exact man.
2. Homer was the greater genius; Virgil the better artist.

3. Semiramis built Babylon; Dido Carthage; and Romulus Rome.

RULE XIV.

Short Quotations.—A short quotation, or a sentence resembling a quotation, should be preceded by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Patrick Henry began his celebrated speech by saying "It is natural to man to indulge the illusions of hope."
2. A good rule in education is Learn to be slow in forming your opinions.
3. I say There is no such thing as human perfection.
4. Some one justly remarks "It is a great loss to lose an affliction."



II. THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon marks a division of a sentence somewhat larger and more complex than that marked by a comma.

RULE I.

Subdivided Members in Compound Sentences.—When a sentence consists of two members, and these members, or either of them, are themselves subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence should be separated by a semicolon.

NOTES.

1. If the connection between these members is close, the semicolon is not used. The word "when," introducing the first member, indicates this kind of close connection, and prevents ordinarily the use of the semicolon. The Rule itself furnishes an example of the semicolon omitted in a sentence beginning with "when."

2. When the members are considerably complex, they are sometimes separated by a semicolon, even though not subdivided by commas; as, "So sad and dark a story is scarcely to be found in any work of fiction; and we are little disposed to envy the moralist who can read it without being softened."

Examples for Practice.

1. Sparre was sulky and perverse because he was a citizen of a republic.

2. Sparre the Dutch general was sulky and perverse because according to Lord Mahon he was a citizen of a republic.

3. Milton was like Dante a statesman and a lover and like Dante he had been unfortunate in ambition and in love.

4. You may quit the field of business though not the field of danger and though you cannot be safe you may cease to be ridiculous.

RULE II.

Clauses and Expressions having a Common Dependence.—When several clauses or grammatical expressions of similar construction follow each other in a series, all having a common dependence upon some other clause, they are separated from each other by a semicolon, and from the clause on which they all depend, by a comma.

Example.—“Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries.”

Examples for Practice.

1. Mr. Croker is perpetually stopping us in our progress through the most delightful narrative in the language to observe that really Dr. Johnson was very rude that he talked more for victory than for truth that his taste for port wine with capilliare in it was very odd that Boswell was impertinent and that it was foolish in Mrs. Thrale to marry the music-master.

2. To give an early preference to honor, above gain when they stand in competition; to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest acts; to brook no meanness and to stoop to no dissimulations are the indications of a great mind.

RULE III.

Sentences Connected in Meaning, but without Grammatical Dependence.—Sentences following each other, without grammatical dependence, but connected in meaning, are usually separated from each other by semicolons.

Example.—“She presses her child to her heart; she drowns it in her tears; her fancy catches more than an angel’s tongue can describe.”

In all the cases which come under this Rule, two features are essential. First, each of the several members forming the continued sentence should be complete in itself, so that it might grammatically stand alone, with a period following. Secondly, these several members should have some underlying thread of connection in the thought. Authors differ in regard to the punctuation, in these cases. Some insist on separating the members by a period. By such a course, however, we lose one important means of marking nice changes of thought. Others use the colon, instead of the semicolon, for these purposes. This was the case formerly much more than now. The best usage at present is, to employ a period, a colon, a semicolon, or a comma, according to the degree of complexity or simplicity of the several sentences, and the degree of closeness or looseness of connection in the thought. If the connection is close, and the successive members are short and simple, the comma is used; if the members are somewhat longer, and especially if any of them are at all complex, the semicolon is used; if, in addition to this, the connection in the thought is but faint, the colon is used; and when the connection almost disappears, the period is used.

Examples for Practice.

1. Stones grow vegetables grow and live animals grow live and feel.
2. The summer is over and gone the winter is here with its frosts and snow the wind howls in the chimney at night the beast in the forest forsakes its lair the birds of the air seek the habitation of men.
3. The temples are profaned the soldier’s oath resounds in the house of God the marble pavement is trampled by iron hoofs horses neigh beside the altar.

RULE IV.

The Clause Additional.—When a sentence complete in itself is followed by a clause which is added by way of inference, explanation, or enumeration, the additional clause, if formally introduced by some connecting word, is separated from the main body of the sentence by a semicolon; but, if merely appended without any such connecting word, by a colon.

Examples.—Apply yourself to study; for it will redound to your honor. Apply yourself to study: it will redound to your honor.

Some of the connecting words most commonly used for this purpose are *namely, for, but, yet, to wit, etc.*

The word *as*, when used to connect an example with a rule, should be preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Greece has given us three great historians namely Herodotus Xenophon and Thucydides.
2. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages viz. the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.
3. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.
4. Cicero in his treatise on morals enumerates four cardinal virtues to wit Fortitude Temperance Justice and Prudence.

RULE V.

A General Term in Apposition to the Particulars under it.—A general term in apposition to several others which are particulars under it is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars are separated from each other by commas.

If the enumeration of the particulars is given with much formality, so as to make the several expressions complex, containing commas of their own, then these particulars must be separated

from the general term by a colon, and from each other by semicolons; as, —

Adjective Pronouns are divided into three classes; Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

Adjective Pronouns are divided into these three classes: first, the Distributive, which are four in number; secondly, the Demonstrative, which are four; and thirdly, the Indefinite, which are nine.



III. THE COLON.

The Colon marks a division of a sentence more nearly complete than a semicolon.

The word is derived from the Greek *κῶλον* (colon), *a limb*, or *member*.

The two principal uses of the colon have already been given in Rules IV. and V., preceding. The following additional rules are given.

RULE I.

Greater Divisions of Complex Sentences.—When the minor divisions of a complex sentence contain a semicolon, the greater divisions should be separated by a colon; thus, —

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not perceive it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible steps, are only perceivable by the distance.

RULE II.

Before a Quotation.—A colon is used before a direct quotation; thus, —

Speaking of party, Pope makes this remark: "There never was any party, faction, sect, or cabal whatsoever, in which the most ignorant were not the most violent."

If the quotation is of considerable length, consisting of several

sentences, or begins a new paragraph, it should be preceded by both a colon and a dash. Example:—

At the close of the meeting, the president rose and said : —

“ Ladies and Gentlemen, it is with extreme reluctance that I address you on this occasion,” etc.

If the quotation is merely some short saying, a comma is sufficient; as, Dr. Thomas Brown says, “ The benevolent spirit is as universal as the miseries which are capable of being relieved.”

RULE III.

Yes and No.—The words *yes* and *no*, when in answer to a question, should be followed by a colon, provided the words which follow the *yes* and *no* are a continuation of the answer; as, —

“ Can these words add vigor to your hearts? Yes: they can do it; they have often done it.”

Yes and *no* are often followed by some noun in the vocative case, or case independent; as, “ Yes, sir,” “ Yes, my lords,” etc. In such cases, the colon should come after the vocative; as, “ Yes, sir: they can do it.” “ Yes, my lords: I am amazed at his lordship’s speech.”

Examples for Practice on the Rules for the Comma, the Semicolon, and the Colon.

[Tell what Point is due at each place where this mark \circ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. Satire always tends to dwarf \circ and it cannot fail to caricature \circ but poetry does nothing \circ if it does not tend to enlarge and exalt \circ and if it does not seek rather to beautify than deform.

2. This is an iambic line \circ in which the first foot is formed of a word and a part of a word \circ the second and third \circ of parts taken from the body or interior of a word \circ the fourth \circ of a part and a whole \circ the fifth \circ of two complete words.

3. Melissa \circ like the bee \circ gathers honey from every weed \circ while Arachne \circ like the spider \circ sucks poison from the fairest flowers.

4. Are these to be conquered by all Europe united? No ○ sir ○ no united nation can be ○ that has the spirit to resolve not to be conquered.

5. Be our plain answer this ○ The throne we honor is the people's choice ○ the laws we reverence are our brave fathers' legacy ○ the faith we follow teaches us to live in bonds of charity with all mankind ○ and die with hope of bliss beyond the grave.

6. The discourse consisted of two parts ○ in the first was shown the necessity of exercise ○ in the second ○ the advantages that would result from it.



IV. THE PERIOD.

The Period marks the completion of the sentence.

The word Period is derived from the Greek *περίοδος* (period), a circuit, and means primarily anything rounded or brought to completion. It was the first point introduced.

RULE I.

Complete Sentences.—Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected in construction with what follows, and not exclamatory or interrogative in their character, should be followed by a period.

RULE II.

After Abbreviations.—A period is used after all abbreviated words.

NOTES.

1. The most common method of abbreviation is to use the first letter of a word for the whole word, as B. Franklin for Benjamin Franklin. Sometimes, in abbreviating the word, the first letter is doubled; as, p. for page, pp. for pages, M. for Monsieur, MM. for Messieurs. In such cases, a period is not inserted between the two letters which represent the plural of one word. This explains why there is no period between the two L's in the title LL.D. (Legum Doctor), the LL. standing for one word in the plural, and the D. for the other word in the singular. Sometimes a word is abbre-

viated by taking the first two or three letters, as Eng. for England; sometimes by taking the first letter and the last, as Wm. for William, Ca. for California; sometimes by taking the first letter and some leading letter in the middle of the word, as Mo. for Missouri, MS. for manuscript. In these cases, the period is to be used only at the end of the combined letters. In the case last cited, the last letter of the combination is doubled when the word is plural; as, MS. manuscript, MSS. manuscripts.

2. When an abbreviated word comes at the end of a sentence, it is not necessary to use two periods. One point is sufficient to mark both the abbreviation and the end of the sentence. But if the construction requires some other point, as the comma, semicolon, colon, interrogation, etc., both points must be inserted, one to mark the grammatical construction, the other to mark the abbreviation; as, "He reported the death of John Chapman, M.D." "John Chapman, M.D., at the early age of twenty-four, was carried off by disease."

3. When two or more abbreviated titles follow each other, they must be separated from each other by commas, just as they would be, if written out in full. Thus: "Thomas Sumner, Doctor of Divinity, Doctor of Laws, Bishop of London," abbreviated, becomes, "Thomas Sumner, D.D., LL.D., Bp. of London."

4. Proper names are sometimes permanently shortened, the short form being meant, not as an ordinary abbreviation, but as the real and true name. This was the case with the celebrated dramatist, Ben Jonson. We have analogous and more familiar instances in Ned Buntline, Bill Smith, Tom Jones, etc. In such cases, no period should be inserted to mark abbreviation.

5. In like manner, various other abbreviations which are in very familiar use acquire the character of integral words, not requiring the period after them to denote abbreviations. They become nouns, with a singular and a plural. Thus, in England, Cantab (an abridgment of Cantabrigiensis, and meaning an alumnus of Cambridge University), has become a noun, the body of the alumni being called Cantabs, and any one of them a Cantab. In like manner, we have Jap and Japs for Japanese, consol and consols for consolidated loan or consolidated loans of the British Government, three per cents, five per cents, etc.

6. The word cent, in the combination per cent, had become thoroughly established as an integral word, and was almost universally written and printed without the mark of abbreviation; but of late years, some writers, in a spirit of hypercriticism, have insisted, unwisely I think, on restoring the period after cent to show that it is an abbreviation of centum. They ought in consistency to put a period after quart, to show that it is an abbreviation of quarta, or after cab, because it is abbreviated for cabriolet.

7. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, A, B, C, etc., when used in geometry and other sciences to represent quantities, are not abbreviations, and should not be so marked by the insertion of a period.

8. When the letters of the alphabet are used to represent numerals, it is

customary to insert a period at the end of each completed numeral; as, Psalms iv., xxi., lxxxvi., cxix., etc. When dates are thus expressed, the whole number is separated into periods of thousands, hundreds, and the portion less than a hundred; as, M.DCCC.LXXI. for the year one thousand, eight hundred, and seventy-one, or 1871.

9. The Arabic figures, 1, 2, 3, etc., and the various marks used by printers, as § for section, ¶ for paragraph, etc., are not abbreviations, but stand for whole words, and therefore do not require the period. The period is used, however, before decimals, and between pounds and shillings; as, £2. 10s. 4d. sterling was worth \$13.719 at the rate of exchange then prevailing.

10. The words 4to, 8vo, 12mo, etc., are not strictly abbreviations, the figures representing a part of the word. If the letters were written in place of the figures which represent them, it would be seen at once that the words are complete, *quar-to*, *octa-vo*, *duodeci-mo*, etc. Periods therefore are not required for such words. The same rule will apply to 1st, 2dly, 3dly, etc.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what Point is needed at each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. The laws of Phoroneus were established 1807 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ those of Lycurgus ○ 884 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ of Draco ○ 623 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ of Solon ○ 587 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ See chap ○ vii ○ § xiv ○ ¶ 7 ○ p ○ 617 ○

2. The reader is requested to refer to the following passages of Scripture ○ Ex ○ xx ○ 18 ○ Deut ○ xx ○ 19 ○ 2 ○ Sam ○ xix ○ 2 ○

3. Bought ○ on 9 mos credit ○ the following articles ○ 4 yds ○ 3 qrs ○ 2 n ○ of broadcloth at \$12 a yd ○ ○ 6 gals ○ 1 pt ○ 2 gi ○ of vinegar at 65 cts ○ a gal ○ ○ and 3½ cords of wood at \$7.50 a cord ○

4. Excellence in conversation depends ○ in a great measure ○ on the attainments which one has made ○ if ○ therefore ○ education is neglected ○ conversation will become trifling ○ if perverted ○ corrupting.

5. Dryden's page is a natural field ○ rising into inequalities ○ and diversified by the varied exuberance of abundant vegetation ○ Pope's is a velvet lawn ○ shaven by the scythe ○ and levelled by the roller.

V. THE INTERROGATION POINT.

An Interrogation Point is used for marking questions.

In regard to the portion of discourse marked off by it, the Interrogation Point is equivalent most commonly to a period; but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma.

It is a question of some importance to know, in each case, to which of these four points the interrogation point is equivalent, because upon this depends the propriety of using, or not using, a capital after it. When there is, in that particular construction, but one interrogation point, it is always equivalent to a period, and should be followed by a capital. When, however, there is a succession of questions, following each other in a series, without any affirmative sentences intervening, the interrogation point sometimes represents sections of discourse less than a period. The way to determine to which class the particular question belongs is to change the construction into an affirmative form. It will, in one case, be resolved into a series of independent sentences, separated by periods; in the other, into a connected or continued sentence, with co-ordinate members separated by commas, semicolons, or colons. Example:

"Who will bring me into the strong city? who will lead me into Edom? Wilt not thou, O God, who hast cast us off? and wilt not thou, O God, go forth with our hosts?" (Ps. 108: 10, 11.) Change to the affirmative form. "Some one will bring me into the strong city; some one will lead me into Edom. Thou, O God, who hast cast us off, wilt do it; thou, O God, wilt go forth with our hosts."

"Shall a man obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety? by murder? by falsehood? by theft?" Affirmatively: "A man cannot obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety, by murder, by falsehood, by theft."

RULE.

Direct Questions.—The interrogation point should be placed at the end of every direct question.

NOTES.

1. A direct question is one in regular form, requiring, or at least admitting an answer; as, "Why do you neglect your duty?" An indirect question is one that is merely reported or spoken of; as, "He inquired why you neglected your duty."

2. When there is a succession of questions, having a common grammatical dependence on some preceding word or clause, each question forming

by itself an incomplete sentence, some writers place an interrogation point at the end of the series, and separate the several members by a dash, or perhaps by a comma. This method of punctuation is not correct. Each question, no matter how short or broken, should have its own point. See the example immediately preceding the Rule.

3. Sometimes a question is intended, although the words are not put in the usual interrogative form. Thus: "You will come this afternoon?" In such cases the interrogation point should be used, as in this example, although the sentence may be declarative in its form.



VI. THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

The Exclamation Point is used for marking strong emotion.

In regard to the portion of discourse set off by it, the exclamation point, like the interrogation point, is equivalent commonly to a period; but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma. The same considerations govern here that govern in the case of the Interrogation.

RULE I.

After Strong Emotion.—The exclamation point must be used at the close of every sentence, clause, or grammatical expression, intended to convey strong emotion.

Inexperienced and weak writers are apt to deal largely in the use of the exclamation point, as if to make up for the feebleness of the thought by mere tricks of punctuation. Young writers therefore should be on their guard in this matter, and not use the exclamation point unless there is some real and strong emotion to be expressed.

RULE II.

After an Interjection.—The exclamation point must be used after an interjection; as, Ah me!

NOTES.

1. Where the interjection does not stand by itself, but forms part of a sentence, clause, or expression, the exclamation point should be placed at the end of the whole expression, and not immediately after the interjection; as, "O wretched state! O bosom black as death!"

2. Sometimes *oh* is grammatically separable from the words following it, though the emotion runs through the whole. In that case, there should be a comma after the *oh*, and the exclamation point at the end of the whole expression; as, "Oh, where shall rest be found!"

3. When an interjection is repeated several times, the words are separated from each other by a comma, the exclamation being put only after the last; as, "Fie, fie, fie! pah, pah! give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."

4. Two of the interjections, *eh* and *hey*, are sometimes uttered in a peculiar tone, so as to ask a question. In that case, they should be followed by the interrogation point; as, "You thought you would not be found out, eh?"

RULE III.

More than One Exclamation Point.—Where the emotion to be expressed is very strong, more than one exclamation point is sometimes used; as, "That man virtuous!! You might as well preach to me of the virtue of Judas Iscariot!!"

This mode of repeating the exclamation point is much used in burlesque and satire.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what Point is needed in each place where this mark \circ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. Why \circ for so many a year \circ has the poet wandered amid the fragments of Athens and Rome \circ and paused \circ with strange and kindling feelings \circ amid their broken columns \circ their mouldering temples \circ their deserted plains \circ

2. Greece \circ indeed \circ fell \circ but how did she fall \circ Did she fall like Babylon \circ Did she fall like Lucifer \circ never to rise again \circ

3. Have you eyes \circ Could you on this fair mountain leave to feed \circ and batten on this moor \circ Ha \circ have you eyes \circ You cannot call it love \circ for \circ at your age \circ the hey-day in the blood is tame, it's humble, and waits upon the judgment \circ and what judgment would step from this to this \circ

4. Charge \circ Chester \circ charge \circ on \circ Stanley \circ on \circ

5. King Charles \circ forsooth \circ had so many private virtues \circ And had James no private virtues \circ Was even Oliver Cromwell \circ his bitterest enemies themselves being judges \circ destitute of private virtues \circ And what \circ after all \circ are the virtues ascribed to Charles \circ

VII. THE DASH.

The Dash is used chiefly, either to mark a sudden change or interruption in the structure of the sentence, or to mark some elocutionary pause.

The Dash, which is of modern origin, has been used so indiscriminately and injudiciously by ill-informed writers, that some critics have insisted on banishing it entirely. This would be only going to another extreme. There are, in many passages, in those particularly which are highly rhetorical, turns of thought, which can be indicated by a dash, and which cannot be indicated by any of the ordinary grammatical points. The dash, therefore, is a necessity in many kinds of composition. But it should not be used as a substitute for the comma, semicolon, colon, period, or interrogation, as inexperienced writers sometimes do mistakenly use it, but should be employed where these regular marks cannot be used, and to express things which they cannot express. The dash, therefore, is incorrect whenever any one of these marks could be substituted for it without changing the meaning. Young writers particularly need to be on their guard in using the dash. Mark every dash as wrong, unless some positive reason for its use can be given, and unless it can be shown that none of the ordinary marks would express the idea.

RULE I.

Construction Changed.—A dash is used where the construction of the sentence is abruptly broken off or changed. Example:—

Was there ever a bolder captain of a more valiant band? Was there ever—but I scorn to boast.

RULE II.

Unexpected Change in Sentiment.—The dash is sometimes used to mark a sudden and unexpected change in the sentiment. Example:—

He had no malice in his mind—
No ruffles on his shirt.

RULE III.

Emphatic Generalization.—A dash is sometimes used to mark the transition from a succession of particulars to some emphatic general expression which includes them all. Example:—

He was witty, learned, industrious, plausible, — *everything* but honest.

RULE IV.

A Series Dependent upon a Concluding Clause.—When there is a long series of clauses or expressions, all dependent upon some concluding clause, it is usual, in passing from the preceding part of the passage to that upon which the whole depends, to mark the transition by inserting a dash, in addition to the comma. Example:—

The great men of Rome, her beautiful legends, her history, the height to which she rose, and the depth to which she fell,—these make up one-half of the student's ideal world.

The most common example of this use of the dash is where the grammatical subject or nominative is loaded with numerous adjuncts, so that there is danger of its being lost sight of when the verb is introduced. The insertion of the dash here seems to give the mind an opportunity of going back to the main subject; as, "Every step in the attainment of physical power; every new trait of intelligence, as they one by one arise in the infantine intellect, like the glory of night, starting star by star into the sky, — is hailed with a heart-burst of rapture and surprise."

RULE V.

Rhetorical Repetition.—When a word or an expression is repeated for rhetorical purposes, the construction being begun anew, a dash should be inserted before each such repetition. Example:—

Shall I, who was born, I might almost say, but certainly brought up, in the tent of my father, that most excellent general—shall I,

the conqueror of Spain and Gaul, and not only of the Alpine nations, but of the Alps themselves — shall I compare myself with this half-year captain?

Note. — This kind of repetition is sometimes called by elocutionists the *Echo*.

RULE VI.

Elocutionary Pause. — A dash is sometimes used to mark a significant pause, where there is no break in the grammatical construction. Example : —

You have given the command to a person of illustrious birth, of ancient family, of innumerable statues, but — of no experience.

The mark here is purely elocutionary. A good reader will pause some perceptible time after the *but*, whether there is a mark there or not. The dash serves to indicate to the eye what the good reader will indicate by his voice. This particular use of the dash is pretty well established, and it is not worth while to make any change in regard to it now. But were the matter of elocutionary notation to be undertaken anew, it would seem better to mark this suspension of the voice by some other means than by a dash, the dash being used for other and very different purposes.

RULE VII.

Reflex Apposition. — Words at the end of a sentence, and standing somewhat detached, and referring back by apposition to preceding parts of the sentence, should be separated from the previous portions by a dash. Examples : —

The four greatest names in English poetry are among the first we come to, — Chaucer, Spenser, Shakspeare, and Milton.

Kings and their subjects, masters and their slaves, find a common level in two places, — at the cross, and in the grave.

Note. — The dash here is said by some to indicate the omission of *namely*, or *that is*. It is true that one of these expressions might be inserted in most cases that come under this rule, but the passage would thereby lose in rhetorical force. The dash, in this case, as in Rule VI., is in fact purely elocutionary.

RULE VIII.

The Dash Parenthetical.—Parenthetical expressions are sometimes included between two dashes, instead of the usual signs of parenthesis. Examples:—

The smile of a child — always so ready when there is no distress, and so soon recurring when that distress has passed away — is like an opening of the sky, showing heaven beyond.

The archetypes, the ideal forms of things without, — if not, as some philosophers have said, in a metaphysical sense, yet in a moral sense, — exist within us.

NOTES.

1. If, when the parenthetical part is removed from a sentence like one of these, the portions remaining require no point between them, no points besides the dashes will be required at the beginning and end of the parenthetical expression. Thus, in the first of the foregoing examples, if the parenthetical part be left out, the remaining portion will read, "The smile of a child is like an opening," etc. But if the parenthetical part be left out of the second example, it will read, "The archetypes, the ideal forms of things without, exist within us," with a comma at the place where each of the dashes come in. In such cases, there must be two commas in the parenthetical form of the sentence, namely, one before each of the dashes, as in the example.

2. If the parenthetical words express an interrogation or an exclamation, they must be followed by an interrogation point or an exclamation point, before the concluding dash; as, Religion — who can doubt it? — is the noblest theme for the exercise of the intellect.

3. The question, whether the marks which separate parenthetical words from the rest of the sentence shall be dashes, commas, or marks of parenthesis, is left a good deal to the fancy of the writer. The subject will be more particularly explained in the section on the Parenthesis.

RULE IX.

Question and Answer.—If question and answer, instead of beginning separate lines, are run into a paragraph, they should be separated by a dash. Example:—

Who made you? — God. What else did God make? — God made all things. Why did God make you and all things? — God made all things for his own glory.

RULE X.

Omissions.—The dash is used to mark the omissions of letters or figures ; as, —

General W——n captured the Hessians at Trenton.

Matt. 9: 1—6. [N. B. This is equivalent to Matt. 9: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.]

RULE XI.

Examples on a New Line.—A dash should follow *us* and *thus*, when the example following them begins a new line.

For example, see the preceding Rule.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what point is needed at each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. Almost all kinds of raw material extracted from the interior of the earth ○ metals ○ coals ○ precious stones ○ and the like ○ are obtained from mines differing in fertility.

2. Each of these great and ever memorable struggles ○ Saxon against Norman ○ villein against lord ○ Roundhead against Cavalier ○ Dissenter against Churchman ○ Manchester against Old Sarum ○ was ○ in its own order and season ○ a struggle on the result of which were staked the dearest interests of the human race ○

3. Here lies the great ○ False marble ○ where ○ Nothing but sordid dust lies here ○

4. Greece ○ Carthage ○ Rome ○ where are they ○

5. "I plunged right into the debate ○ and" ○ "Did not say a word to the point ○ of course" ○

6. "How are you ○ Trepid ○ How do you feel to-day ○ Mr. Trepid?" "A great deal worse than I was ○ thank you ○ almost dead ○ I am obliged to you" ○ "Why ○ Trepid ○ what is the matter with you" ○ "Nothing ○ I tell you ○ nothing in particular ○ but a great deal is the matter with me in general" ○

VIII. THE PARENTHESIS.

The Marks of Parenthesis are used to inclose words which have little or no connection with the rest of the sentence.

NOTES.

1. The word parenthesis (Greek *παρένθεσις*, *insertion*) signifies something inserted or put in, and applies primarily to a sentence or a part of a sentence inserted, by way of comment or explanation, in the midst of another sentence, of which it is independent in construction, and which is grammatically complete without it.

2. We must distinguish between parenthesis and marks of parenthesis. The parenthesis is the sentence, or part of a sentence, that is inserted into another sentence. The marks of parenthesis are the two curved lines which inclose the words thus let in. The term *marks of parenthesis*, to indicate these curved lines, is preferred to the term *parentheses*. Parentheses means properly parenthetical sentences, not marks of parenthesis.

3. Sometimes commas, and sometimes dashes, are used instead of the curved lines, to inclose words that are of a parenthetical character, and it is not always easy to determine when to use one of these modes, and when to use another. It may be observed, in general, that the curved lines mark the greatest degree of separation from the rest of the sentence; the dashes, the next greatest; and the commas, the least separation of all.

Rule for Parenthesis.

Words inserted in the body of a sentence, and nearly or quite independent of it in meaning and construction, should be inclosed with the marks of parenthesis.

NOTES.

1. A very common example of the use of marks of parenthesis is in the reports of speeches, where a person is referred to, but not named. In the actual delivery of the speech, the person meant is sufficiently indicated by the speaker's pointing to him, or looking at him, or by other significant gesture. But as this cannot be transferred to the written or printed page, the reporter usually supplies its place by inserting the name of the person meant, and the name thus inserted by the reporter is inclosed by marks of parenthesis. Thus: "After the very lucid exposition of the matter by the gentleman opposite to me (Mr. Stuart), it will not be necessary for me to say much in defence of this part of the subject."

2. In reporting speeches, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose exclamations of approbation or disapprobation on the part of the audience; as, "My lords, I am amazed at his lordship's declaration (hear, hear). Yes, my lords: I am amazed, that one in his position could so far forget the proprieties of debate."

3. Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose a query, or comment of any kind, made by the one who is reporting, copying, or quoting the words of another; as, "The Romans were the first (indeed?) who learned the art of navigation."

4. In strict accuracy, the marks in these three cases (Notes 1, 2, 3) should be brackets, because the matter thus inserted is really an interpolation by the reporter. But custom has sanctioned the use of marks of parenthesis in these cases. [See Section IX., Brackets, Note 2.]

5. In scientific works, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose figures or letters that are employed in enumerating a list of particulars; as, "The unlawfulness of suicide appears from the following considerations: (1.) Suicide is unlawful on account of its general consequences. (2.) Because it is the duty," etc.

6. If no point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case there were no parenthesis there, then no points should be used at that place, in addition to the marks of parenthesis; as, "The Egyptian style of architecture (see Dr. Pocock's work) was apparently the mother of the Greek."

7. If a point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case no parenthesis were there, then, when the parenthesis is inserted, said point should be inserted also, and should be placed after the second mark of parenthesis; as, "Pride, in some disguise or other, is the most ordinary spring of action." "Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action."

8. If the parenthetical part of a sentence requires at the end a point of its own, this point should come inside of the last mark of parenthesis, and the point belonging to the main sentence should come before the first mark of parenthesis; as, "While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men, (and why should he not desire it?) he disdains to receive their goodwill by dishonorable means."



IX. BRACKETS.

Brackets are used to inclose in a sentence a word, or words, which do not form part of the original composition.

NOTES.

1. Brackets are somewhat like the marks of parenthesis in form, one, however, being angular, the other curved, and are also in some respects like the latter in signification and use.

2. Brackets are used to inclose a sentence, or a part of a sentence, within the body of another sentence, and thus far are like the marks of parenthesis. But the matter included within brackets is entirely independent of the sentence, and so differs from what is merely parenthetical. Further, the matter within the brackets is usually inserted by one writer to correct or add to what has been written by another, while the parenthesis is a part of the original composition, and is written by the same person that wrote the rest of the sentence.

3. The comma before and after, the dash before and after, the marks of parenthesis, and the brackets, all have something in common. They all are used to include matter which is inserted in the body of a sentence, and which is more or less independent of the sentence, and extraneous to it. They indicate increasing degrees of independence and extraneousness, *about* in the order in which they have just been named, the comma before and after showing least, and the brackets showing most, of this independence.

Rule for the Use of Brackets.

In correcting or modifying the expressions of another, by inserting words of our own, the words thus inserted should be inclosed in brackets. Examples:—

A soft answer turn [turns] away wrath.

The number of our days are [is] with thee.

The letter [which] you wrote me on Saturday came duly to hand.

The captain had several men [who] died on the voyage.

NOTES.

1. Brackets are used in critical editions of ancient authors to indicate that in the opinion of the editor the words so inclosed are an interpolation, and do not belong to the original. The words thus bracketed are not interpolated by the editor, but the editor takes this means of indicating that they have been interpolated by somebody else. He fears to leave the words out altogether, because they have stood so long in the text, but he takes this means of showing that he considers them spurious.

2. Brackets are used in dictionaries to separate the pronunciation, or the etymology of a word, or some incidental remark about it, from the other parts of the explanation. Thus: Resemblant [Fr. *resembler*, to resemble]. Having resemblance. [Rare.]

3. In regard to the use of points before and after the brackets, and the punctuation of any sentence or clause within the brackets, the same rules will apply that have been given in regard to the marks of parenthesis.

Examples on all the preceding Rules.

1. The last words of Raleigh were ○ “Why dost thou not strike ○ Strike ○ man ○” ○ To the executioner ○ who was pausing ○ The last of the Duke of Buckingham ○ “Traitor ○ thou hast killed me ○” ○ To the assassin Felton ○ The last of Charles II. ○ “Don’t let poor Nelly starve ○” ○ Referring to Nell Gwynne ○ The last of William III. ○ “Can this last long ○” ○ To his physician ○ The last of Locke ○ “Cease now ○” ○ To Lady Markham ○ who had been reading the Psalms to him ○

2. If we exercise right principles ○ and we cannot have them unless we exercise them ○ they must be perpetually on the increase ○

3. Are you still ○ I fear you are ○ far from being comfortably settled ○

4. Know then this truth ○ enough for man to know ○
Virtue alone is happiness below ○

5. The Egyptian style of architecture ○ see Dr Pocock ○ not his discourses ○ but his prints ○ was apparently the mother of the Greek ○



X. QUOTATION MARKS.

A Quotation is the introduction into one’s discourse of a word or of words uttered by some one else.

The marks of quotation are two inverted commas (“) at the beginning, and two apostrophes (”) at the end, of the portion quoted.

RULE I.

Words from Another Author.—A word or words introduced from some other author should be inclosed by quotation marks.

NOTES.

1. It is proper for a writer to use quotation marks in introducing words from some other writings of his own, if the words thus introduced are intended as a citation.

2. A writer, in quoting from himself, may use his option in regard to the use of quotation marks. It depends upon whether he does, or does not, wish to make a reference to his previous writings. We have no such option, however, when using the words of other people. To use the words of others without acknowledging them to be such, is plagiarism, which is only another name for *stealing*. It is, however, a breach of the Decalogue, rather than of Grammar.

3. Sometimes, in quoting from another, we wish for convenience to give the substance only of his meaning, but not his exact words. In such a case, we may show that the wording has been thus altered, by using only one inverted comma and one apostrophe, instead of two. Thus: The last six commandments are, 'Honor thy father and thy mother, Thou shalt not kill, Thou shalt not commit adultery, Thou shalt not steal, Thou shalt not bear false witness, Thou shalt not covet.' Unless we indicate in this way, or by express remark, that the phraseology has been altered, we should in quoting be careful to give the exact words of the author, especially where the quotation is from Holy Scripture. Any alteration whatever in the words inclosed in quotation marks is regarded as dishonest, unless in some manner we distinctly indicate that such alteration has been made.

4. Quotation marks are not proper when we state the opinion of others in language of our own; as, Socrates said that he believed the soul to be immortal. If this expression be changed, so as to give the exact words of Socrates, then the quotation marks will be needed; as, Socrates said, "I believe the soul to be immortal."

5. Short phrases from foreign languages are usually printed in italics, instead of being inclosed in quotation marks; as, He believed in the principle of *nil admirari*. Titles and names of various kinds are sometimes marked in this way; as, *The Tempest* is regarded by some as one of Shakespeare's earliest plays. This practice, however, is not so much in vogue as it was, the tendency at present being to use, in all such cases, the quotation marks instead of italics.

RULE II.

A Quotation within a Quotation.—When a quotation incloses within it another quotation, the external quotation has the double marks, and the one included has only the single marks. Examples:—

It has been well said, "The command, 'Thou shalt not kill,' forbids many crimes besides that of murder."

Some one has said, "What an argument for prayer is contained in the words, 'Our Father which art in heaven!'"

RULE III.

Consecutive Paragraphs Quoted.—When several consecutive paragraphs are quoted, the inverted commas should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but the apostrophes only at the end of the whole quotation.

NOTES.

1. If the several paragraphs thus quoted do not come together in the original, but are taken from different parts of the book or essay, each several paragraph should begin and end with quotation marks.

2. If the extract forms but one paragraph, but is made up of several detached portions taken from different parts of the book or essay quoted, the fact that the extracts are not continuous may be shown, either by inserting points (. . .) at each place where there is a break, or by inclosing each detached portion with quotation marks.

3. In some publications, the inverted commas are inserted at the beginning of each line of a quotation. The *London Times* always punctuates in this way. So do some American newspapers. The practice is more common in England than in America, but as it encumbers and disfigures the page without any real advantage, the tendency in both countries is towards the simpler method prescribed in Rule III.

Examples for Practice.

1. This definition ○ Dr ○ Latham ○ from whom we borrowed it ○ illustrates ○ in his work on the ○ English Language ○ p ○ 359 ○ by the expression ○ a sharp-edged instrument ○, which means an instrument with sharp edges.

2. The words ○ all-wise ○, ○ incense-breaking ○, ○ book-seller ○, and ○ noble-man ○ are compounds.

3. ○ There is but one object ○ ○ says Augustine ○ ○ greater than the soul ○ and that one is its Creator ○ ○

4. ○ Let me make the ballads of a nation ○ ○ said Fletcher of Saltoun ○ ○ and I care not who makes the laws ○ ○

5. When Fenelon's library was on fire ○ ○ God be praised ○ ○ said he ○ ○ that it is not the dwelling of a poor man ○ ○

CAPITALS.

RULE 1. First Word in a Sentence.—The first word in a sentence should begin with a capital.

RULE 2. First Word of an Example.—The first word of a sentence or clause which is given as an example should begin with a capital; as, "Temperance promotes health."

RULE 3. First Word of a Direct Question.—The first word of a direct question should begin with a capital. Examples:—

(Direct.) His words are, "Why do you not study the lesson?"

(Indirect.) He desires to know why you do not study the lesson.

RULE 4. First Word of a Direct Quotation.—The first word of a direct quotation should begin with a capital. Examples:—

(Direct.) Plutarch says, "Lying is the vice of slaves."

(Indirect.) Plutarch says that lying is the vice of slaves.

RULE 5. First Word after a Period.—The first word after a period, except when used as an abbreviation, should begin with a capital.

RULE 6. After an Interrogation.—A capital should follow the mark of interrogation, when equivalent to a period, as it usually is.

RULE 7. Numbered Clauses.—Clauses, when separately numbered, should begin with a capital, though not separated from each other by a period; as,—

This writer asserts, 1. That Nature is unlimited in her operations; 2. That she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; 3. That knowledge will always be progressive, and, 4. That all future generations will continue to make discoveries.

RULE 8. Quoting Titles.—In quoting the title of a book, every noun, pronoun, adjective, and adverb should begin with a capital; as, "Sparks's Life of Washington."

RULE 9. The pronoun I, and the interjection O, should always be capital letters.

RULE 10. Poetry.—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

RULE 11. Names of God.—All names and titles of God should begin with a capital; as, Jehovah, Father, Creator, Almighty, etc.

NOTE 1. When any name usually applied to the Supreme Being is used for a created being, it does not begin with a capital; as, "The Lord is a great God above all *gods*." "Lord of *lords*."

NOTE 2. Providence is sometimes used to mean God, that is, the One who provides for us; Heaven likewise is used to mean the One who reigns in heaven. In such cases the word should begin with a capital. But if only God's providential care, or his place of abode is meant, a capital is not needed.

NOTE 3. The adjectives *eternal*, *universal*, *heavenly*, *divine*, etc., when applied to God, need not begin with a capital, unless something in the particular instance makes them emphatic. Custom, however, has made capitals necessary in the following instances: Almighty God, Infinite One, Supreme Being, First Cause.

NOTE 4. When an attribute of God is expressed, not by an adjective, as in the instances above, but by a noun dependent upon another noun, as, "Father of mercies," the dependent noun in such combinations does not require a capital.

NOTE 5. "Son of God," as applied to our Saviour, requires that both nouns should begin with a capital; "Son of man" requires no capital for the latter noun.

NOTE 6. Great diversity prevails in regard to the pronouns, when referring to God. Some authors, in printing a hymn or a prayer, make the page fairly bristle with capitals, every pronoun that refers in any manner to God being decorated in that manner. The first stage of this fancy is that which prints in this manner Thou, Thine, Thee. In the second stage, He, His, Him are thus treated. The last and highest stage shows itself in the relative pronouns, Who, Whose, and Whom. In the standard editions of the English Bible, the pronouns, when referring to God, are never printed in this way, not even in forms of direct address to the Deity; as, "But thou, O Lord, be merciful unto me," etc.

RULE 12. Proper Names.—All proper names should begin with capitals; as, Jupiter, Mahomet, Brahma, Pompey, Lake Erie, Monday, Good Friday, Rome, China, France.

NOTE 1. The word *devil*, when used to designate Satan, should begin with a capital; in all other cases, with a small letter; as, "The Devil and his angels." "The devils also believe and tremble."

NOTE 2. The same persons who capitalize the first letter of the pronouns when referring to God, capitalize the first letter of *heaven* and *hell* when referring to the abodes of the blessed and of the lost. But such is not the usage in the Bible, which is the most carefully printed book in the language.

"If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there: if I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art there."

NOTE 3. *North, South, East, and West*, when used to denote certain parts of the country or of the world, should begin with a capital; as, "This man evidently is a native of the West." But when they denote merely geographical direction, they should begin with a small letter; as, "Ohio lies west of the Alleghanies."

NOTE 4. When a name is compounded of a proper noun and of some other word which is not a proper noun, connected by a hyphen, the part which is not a proper noun begins with a capital, if it precedes the hyphen, but with a small letter, if it follows the hyphen; as, Pre-Adamite, New-England, Sunday-school.

RULE 13. Words derived from Proper Names.— Words derived from proper names should begin with a capital; as, Mahometan, Brahmin, Christian, Roman; French, Spanish, Grecian; to Christianize, to Judaize, to Romanize, etc.

NOTE 1. The names of religious sects, whether derived from proper names or otherwise, begin with a capital; as, Christians, Pagans, Jews, Gentiles, Lutherans, Calvinists, Protestants, Catholics, etc. The names of political parties likewise begin with capitals; as, Democrats, Republicans, Radicals, Conservatives, etc.

NOTE 2. Some words, derived originally from proper names, have by long and familiar usage lost all reference to their origin, and are printed like ordinary words, without capitals; as, *simony, damask, jalap, godlike, philippic, to hector, to galvanize, to japan*, etc.

RULE 14. Titles of Honor and Office.— Titles of honor and office should begin with a capital; as, The President of the United States, His Honor the Mayor of Philadelphia, President Madison, Queen Victoria, Sir Robert Murchison, Your Royal Highness, etc.

NOTE. — The term *father*, when used to denote one of the early Christian writers, is always printed with a capital; as, "Chrysostom and Augustine are among the most voluminous of the Fathers."

RULE 15. Subjects first introduced.— In works of a scientific character, when the subject of a particular section is defined, or is first introduced, it begins with a capital; as, "A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun."

RULE 16. The Bible.— A capital is always used for the terms ordinarily employed to designate the Bible, or any particular part or book of the Bible; as, The Holy Bible, the Sacred Writings,

the Old Testament, the Acts of the Apostles, the Revelation, etc. In like manner, a capital is used in giving the names of other sacred writings, as the Koran, the Zend Avesta, the Puranas, etc.

RULE 17. Words of Special Importance.— Words describing the great events of history, or extraordinary things of any kind, which have acquired a distinctive name, begin with a capital; as, the Reformation, the Revolution, the war of Independence, the Middle Ages, Magna Charta, the Gulf Stream, etc.

RULE 18. Personification.— In cases of strongly marked personification, the noun personified should begin with a capital; as, —

“Hope for a season bade the world farewell,
And Freedom shrieked as Kosciusko fell.”

Note.— This rule, like that in regard to words of special importance, requires discretion on the part of the writer. Young and inexperienced writers are prone to apply it too frequently.

Miscellaneous Examples for Practice.

[Punctuate the following sentences, and make the necessary corrections in regard to capitals, giving your reasons for each alteration.]

1. Charles notwithstanding the delay had left england to work his way as best he might out of his Difficulties
2. the scots therefore at the break of day entered the Castle
3. Fashion is for the most part the ostentation of Riches
4. besides if you labor in moderation it will conduce to Health as well as to Wealth
5. Sir Peter Carew for some unknown reason had written to ask for his pardon
6. The Man when He saw this departed
7. Elizabeth who had been requested to attend was not present
8. The frost had set in the low damp ground was hard the Dykes were frozen
9. she thought the isle that gave her birth
the sweetest mildest land on earth
10. Give me a sanctified and just a charitable and humble a religious and contented spirit
11. The ocelot a beautiful and striped fiend hisses like a snake
12. Well Sir Nicholas what news
13. Zaccheus make haste and come down

14. The conspiracy being crushed without bloodshed an inquiry into its origin could be carried out at leisure

15. Thus preciously freighted the spanish fleet sailed from Corunna

16. Cruel and savage as the Persecution had become it was still inadequate

17. Faith is opposed to infidelity hope to despair charity to enmity and hostility

18. Elizabeth threw herself in front of Marie Antoinette exclaiming I am the queen

19. Kant said give me matter and I will build the world

20. Whatever happens Mary exclaims Elizabeth I am the wife of the Prince of Spain crown rank life all shall go before I will take any other husband.

21. In this way we learned that miss Steele never succeeded in catching the doctor that Kitty Bennett was satisfactorily married by a clergyman near Pemberton that the "considerable sum" given by Mrs. Norris to William Price was one pound and that the letters placed by Churchill before Jane Fairfax which she swept away unread contained the word pardon

22. *Ars* in latin is the contrary of *in-ers* it is the contrary of in-action it is action

23. there are five moods the indicative the potential the subjunctive the imperative and the infinitive

24. Princes have courtiers and merchants have partners the voluptuous have companions and the wicked have accomplices none but the virtuous have friends

25. in his last Moments He uttered these words i fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury

26. Bacon Francis usually known as Lord bacon was born in London England Jan 22 1560 and died 1626 he was famous as a scholar a wit a lawyer a judge a statesman a politician but chiefly as a philosopher



FIGURES.

A **Figure** in language is some deviation from the usual mode of speech with a view of making the language more effective. This deviation may be in the *form* of a word, and then it relates to Orthography and Etymology; it may be in its *construction* with the other words of a sentence, and then it relates to Syntax; it may be in the *meaning* of a word, and then it relates to Rhetoric.

I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

A Figure of Orthography or Etymology is some deviation from the usual *form* of a word. The principal figures of this kind are eight; *Aphæresis*, *Syncope*, *Apocope*, *Prosthesis*, *Paragoge*, *Synæresis*, *Diæresis*, and *Tmesis*.

Aphæresis takes away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, *'gan*, for *began*.

Syncope rejects a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; as, *lov'd*, for *loved*; *e'er*, for *ever*.

Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the end; as, *th'*, for *the*; *yon*, for *yonder*.

Prosthesis prefixes a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; as, *enchain*, for *chain*; *adown*, for *down*.

Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the end; as, *awaken*, for *awake*; *vasty*, for *vast*.

Synæresis is the contraction of two vowels or of two syllables into one; as, *walkst*, for *walkest*. Two words also are frequently contracted into one; as, *'Tis*, for *it is*; *'twas*, for *it was*; *we'll*, for *we will*.

Diæresis is placing the mark " over the latter of two vowels to show that they are not to be sounded as a diphthong; as, in *zoölogy*.

Tmesis separates a compound word by putting a word between; as, "*To God ward*," that is, "*Toward God*."

II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A Figure of Syntax is some deviation from the ordinary *construction* of a word. The figures of this kind are usually reckoned four; *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Enallage*, and *Hyperbaton*.

Ellipsis is the omission of words necessary to supply the regular or full construction; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation [makes] a ready man; and writing [makes] an exact man."

Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words; as, "I went home full of a great many serious reflections." Here the words *a great many* must be cancelled, as unnecessary.

Enallage is the use of one part of speech for another; as, "*Slow* rises merit, when by poverty depressed."

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "Come, nymph demure." It frequently imparts energy to a sentence, and is very common in poetry.

III. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A Figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the proper and literal meaning of a word or phrase.

The following are the principal Figures of Rhetoric: *Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Antithesis, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Interrogation, Exclamation, Apostrophe, Personification, Hyperbole, Irony.*

A **Simile** is a formal comparison between two objects, expressed by the words *like* or *as*. Thus, we can say of a horse, "He is as *swift* as the *wind*;" and of a man, "He is as *firm* as a *rock*."

A **Metaphor** expresses a resemblance between two objects without the sign of comparison *like* or *as*; thus, "Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path." A metaphor implies a comparison, and differs from a simile only in form, the sign of comparison being omitted. Thus, when I say, "A hero is *like* a lion," I use a simile; but when I say, "A hero *is* a lion," I employ a metaphor.

An **Allegory** is a description of one thing under the image of another: it is a sort of continued metaphor.

The following from the 80th Psalm is a beautiful allegory, in which the Jewish nation is represented under the symbol of a vine. "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it; and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars. It sent out its boughs into the sea and its branches into the river. Why hast thou broken down its hedges, so that all they who pass by the way do pluck it? The boar out of the wood doth waste it, and the wild beast of the field doth devour it."

Antithesis consists in putting two unlike things in juxtaposition, so that each will appear more striking by the contrast; as, "The prodigal robs his heir, the miser robs himself."

A **Metonymy** is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause, the container for the thing contained, the sign for the thing signified, etc. Thus, 1. The cause for

the effect, or the author for his works; as, "I am reading *Virgil*;" that is, his *works*. 2. The effect for the cause; as, "*Grey hairs* should be respected;" that is, *old age*. 3. The container for the thing contained; as, "*The kettle boils*," meaning the *water*. 4. The sign for the thing signified; as, "He assumes the *sceptre*;" that is, "He assumes the *sovereignty*."

A Synecdoche is a figure by which the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole, a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, "*Man* returns to the dust," meaning only his *body*, "He earns his *bread*," meaning *all the necessities* of life.

Interrogation is a question put, not to get an answer, but to express our own opinions more strongly. Thus, "The Lord is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent. *Hath he said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*"

Exclamation is used to express agitated feeling, admiration, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, etc.; thus, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"

Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject of discourse, to address some other person or thing; as, "It advances, and with menacing aspect slides into the heart of the city. *O my country! ah! Ilium, the habitation of the gods!*" Personification and apostrophe so nearly coincide, that they are frequently confounded. The former, however, consists in giving life to inanimate objects, and the latter in abruptly addressing objects thus animated, or persons that are dead or absent.

Personification is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "The *thirsty* ground;" "The *angry* ocean;" "The mountains *saw* Thee, O Lord, and they *trembled*."

A Hyperbole is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they are in reality; thus, David, speaking of Saul and Jonathan, says, "They were *swifter than eagles*, they were *stronger than lions*."

Irony is a figure by which we express ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations. Thus, the prophet Elijah, in challenging the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, ironically says, "Cry aloud, for he is a god; either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked."

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of words into poetical lines or verses.

I. VERSES.

A **poetical line or verse** consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules. It was originally called *verse*, from the Latin *verto*, I turn, because when we have finished one line, we *turn* back to commence another.

A **couplet** consists of two successive lines rhyming together.

A **triplet** consists of three successive lines rhyming together.

A **stanza** is a combination of several lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. The word *verse*, which strictly means only a single line, is often incorrectly used for stanza.

Rhyme is, for the most part, the correspondence of the last sound of one line to the last sound of another.

Blank verse is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

II. FEET.

Feet are the smaller portions into which a line or verse is divided. They are called feet, because by their aid the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

The syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans, by dividing their syllables into long and short; and the long syllables, being the more important, marked the movement. In English, syllables are, for this purpose, divided into accented and unaccented; the accented syllables, which show the movement, are distinguished by the mark of a *long* syllable, and the unaccented by the mark of a *short* syllable.

The feet ordinarily used in English poetry are four in number; two of two syllables, and two of three syllables.

Feet of two syllables.

1. An Iambus ~ -; as, dēfēnd.
2. A Trochee - ~; as, nōblē.

Feet of three syllables.

3. An Anapæst ~ ~ - ; as, ĭntěrcēde.

4. A Dactyl - ~ ~ ; as, vĭrtũoũs.

III. KINDS OF VERSE.

The kind of verse to which any piece of poetry belongs depends upon the kind of foot by which it is chiefly formed. Hence it is styled *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapæstic*, or *Dactylic verse*, according as the prevailing foot is an Iambus, a Trochee, an Anapæst, or a Dactyl.

Each of these kinds of verse is subdivided according to the number of feet or metres in a line. A line consisting of only one foot is called a *Monometer* ; of two feet, a *Dimeter* ; of three feet, a *Trimeter* ; of four feet, a *Tetrameter* ; of five feet, a *Pentameter* ; of six feet, a *Hexameter*. There being thus six different lengths for each of the four kinds of verse, we have in all twenty-four varieties. These are exhibited in the following tables:

1. Iambic.

1. — <i>Monometer</i> ,	~ -
	āwāke
2. — <i>Dimeter</i> ,	~ - ~ -
	tũ mē thē rōse
3. — <i>Trimeter</i> ,	~ - ~ - ~ -
	ĩn plā cēs fār ānd nēar
4. — <i>Tetrameter</i> ,	~ - ~ - ~ - ~ -
	ānd māy āt lāst mĭ wēa rĭ āge
5. — <i>Pentameter</i> ,	~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ -
	hōw lōved hōw vāl uēd ōnce āvails thēe nōt
6. — <i>Hexameter</i> ,	~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ -
	thĭ reālm fōrēv ēr lāsts thĭ ōwn Mēssĭ āh rēigns

2. Trochaic.

1. — <i>Monometer</i> ,	- ~
	mērcē
2. — <i>Dimeter</i> ,	- ~ - ~
	ōn thē mōuntaĭn
3. — <i>Trimeter</i> ,	- ~ - ~ - ~
	whēn ōur hēarts āre mōurnĭng
4. — <i>Tetrameter</i> ,	- ~ - ~ - ~ - ~
	lōvelĭ Thāls sĭts bē sĭde thēe
5. — <i>Pentameter</i> ,	- ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~
	Sātĭrs bĭ thē brōoklēt lōve tō dāllĭ
6. — <i>Hexameter</i> ,	- ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~ - ~
	ōn ā mōuntaĭn strēched bē nēath ā hōarĭ willōw

3. Anapæstic.

- 1.— *Monometer*, | v v - |
| rēfērēe |
- 2.— *Dimeter*, | v v - | v v - |
| ōn thē plain | ās hē strōde |
- 3.— *Trimeter*, | v v - | v v - | v v - |
| I wōld hīde | with thē bēasts | ōf thē chāse |
- 4.— *Tetrameter*, | v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - |
| whēn rēpō | sīng thāt nīght | ōn mý pāl | lēt ōf strāw |
- 5.— *Pentameter*,
| v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - |
| ōn thē wārm | chēek ōf yōuth | thē gāy smile | ānd thē rōse | ēvēr blēnd |
- 6.— *Hexameter*,
| v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - | v v - |
| bût thē leāves | āre bēgīn nīng tō wīth | ēr ānd drōop | ānd thēy dīe | īn ā dāy |

4. Dactylic.

- 1.— *Monometer*, [- v v |
| mērcīfūl |
- 2.— *Dimeter*, | - v v | - v v |
| tūke hēr ūp | tēndērly |
- 3.— *Trimeter*, | - v v | - v v | - v v |
| wēary ānd | wōrn shē ā | wāitēd thēe |
- 4.— *Tetrameter*, | - v v | - v v | - v v | - v v |
| fādēd thē | vāpōrs thāt | sēemed tō ēn | cōmpāss hīm |
- 5.— *Pentameter*, | - v v | - v v | - v v | - v v | - v v |
| life hāth its | plēasūres bût | fādīng āre | thēy ās thē | flōwērēt |
- 6.— *Hexameter*,
| - v v | - v v | - v v | - v v | - v v |
| ōvēr thē | vāllēy wīth | spēed līke thē | wīnd āll thē | stēeds wēre ā | gāllōpīng |





SELECTIONS

FOR

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

IF the dear faculty of sight should fail,
Still it may be allowed me to remember
What visionary powers of eye and soul,
In youth, were mine; when stationed on the top
Of some huge hill, expectant, I beheld
The sun rise up, from distant climes returned,
Darkness to chase, and sleep, and bring the day
His bounteous gift."

I CARE not, Fortune, what you me deny;
You cannot rob me of free Nature's grace,
You cannot shut the windows of the sky,
Through which Aurora shows her brightening face;
You cannot bar my constant feet to trace
The woods and lawns, by living streams at eve;
Let health my nerves and finer fibres brace,
And I their toys to the great children leave;
Of fancy, reason, virtue, naught can me bereave."

CAN gold calm passion or make reason shine?
Can we dig peace or wisdom from the mine?
Wisdom to gold prefer, for 'tis much less
To make our fortune than our happiness:

That happiness which great ones often see,
 With rage and wonder, in a low degree,
 Themselves unblessed. The poor are only poor;
 But what are they who droop amid their store?
 Nothing is meaner than a wretch of state,
 The happy only are the truly great.
 Peasants enjoy like appetites with kings,
 And those best satisfied with cheapest things,
 Could both our Indies buy but one new sense,
 Our envy would be due to large expense."



PROUD of his well-spread walks, he views his trees
 That meet (no barren interval between)
 With pleasure more than even their fruits afford,
 Which, save himself who trains them, none can feel;
 These, therefore, are his own peculiar charge;
 No meaner hand may discipline the shoots,
 None but his steel approach them. What is weak,
 Distempered, or has lost prolific powers,
 Impaired by age, his unrelenting hand
 Dooms to the knife; nor does he spare the soft
 And succulent, that feeds its giant growth
 But barren, at the expense of neighboring twigs
 Less ostentatious, and yet studded thick
 With hopeful gems."



IN your affairs, my lord,
 If ever I were wilful negligent,
 It was my folly; if industriously
 I played the fool, it was my negligence,
 Not weighing well the end; if ever fearful
 To do a thing, where I the issue doubted,
 Whereof the execution did cry out
 Against the non-performance, 't was a fear
 Which oft infects the wisest; these, my lord,
 Are such allowed infirmities, that honesty
 Is never free of."

I TELL thee, then, whoever, amidst the sons
 Of reason, valor, liberty and virtue,
 Displays distinguished merit, is a noble
 Of Nature's own creating. Such have risen,
 Sprung from the dust, or where had been our honors?
 And such, in radiant bands, will rise again
 In yon immortal city, that, when most
 Depressed by fate, and near apparent ruin,
 Returns, as with an energy divine,
 On her astonished foes, and shakes them from her."



O DIVINE Nature, how thyself thou blazonest
 In these two princely boys! They are as gentle
 As zephyrs, blowing below the violet
 Not wagging his sweet head; and yet as rough,
 Their royal blood enchafed, as the rudest wind,
 That by the top doth take the mountain pine,
 And make him stoop to the vale. 'T is wonderful
 That an invisible instinct should frame them
 To royalty unlearned; honor untaught;
 Civility not seen from other; valor,
 That wildly grows in them, but yields a crop,
 As if it had been sowed."

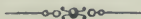


I F the immortal gods have so decreed
 That this affliction you should undergo,
 It is your duty patiently to bear it;
 Which if you do, the trouble will be lighter.
 When at your home, you, I presume, were free;
 But since captivity is now your lot,
 Submission would become you. Should a master
 Commit unworthy actions, yet his slaves
 Must think them worthy ones."



G OD made the country, and man made the town,
 What wonder, then, that health and virtue — gifts
 That can alone make sweet the bitter draught

That life holds out to all — should most abound,
 And least be threatened, in the fields and groves!
 Our groves were planted to console at noon
 The pensive wanderer in their shade. At eve,
 The moon-beam, sliding softly in between
 The sleeping leaves, is all the light they wish —
 Birds, warbling, all the music. We can spare
 The splendor of your lamps; they but eclipse
 Our softer satellite.”



A SMILING look she had, a figure slight,
 With cheerful air and step both quick and light;
 A strange and foreign look the maiden bore,
 That suited the quaint Belgian dress she wore;
 Yet the blue fearless eyes in her fair face,
 And her soft voice, told her of English race;
 And ever, as she flitted to and fro,
 She sang, or murmured rather, soft and low
 Snatches of song.”



SEE the sole bliss Heaven could on all bestow!
 Which who but feels can taste, but thinks can know;
 Yet poor with fortune, and with learning blind,
 The bad must miss, the good untaught will find;
 Where are no wants, no wishes can remain,
 Since but to wish more virtue, is to gain.”



SO reads he Nature, whom the lamp of truth
 Illuminates; thy lamp, mysterious Word!
 Which whoso sees, no longer wanders lost,
 But runs the road of wisdom. Thou hast built
 With means, that were not till by thee employed,
 Worlds, that had never been, hadst thou in strength
 Been less.”

MAN, like the generous vine, supported lives;
The strength he gains is from the embrace he gives.
On their own axes as the planets run,
Yet make at once their circle round the sun;
So two consistent motions acts the soul,
And one regards itself, and one the whole.
Thus God and Nature linked the general frame,
And bade self-love and social be the same."

THUS Cæsar, god-like, to the pilot cries:—
Superior to despair, the waves despise,
And the vain threat'ning of the angry skies;
Though gods deny thee yon Italian strand,
Yet go, I charge thee, go at my command.
To ignorance alone ascribe thy cares,
Not knowing what a freight thy vessel bears.
Let floods and winds loud war with cowards wage,
Or waste upon themselves their empty rage;
One stronger in his might remains thy friend;
Thou and thy barque on Cæsar's fate depend."

I DO not rise to waste the night in words;
Let that Plebeian talk: it is not my trade;
But here I stand for right—let him show proofs
For Roman right: though none, it seems, dare stand
To take their share with me. Ah, cluster there;
Cling to your master, judges, Romans, slaves.
His charge is false:—I dare him to his proofs.
You have my answer. Let my actions speak.
But this I will avow, that I have scorned,
And still do scorn, to hide my sense of wrong.
Who brands me on the forehead, breaks my sword,
Or lays the bloody scourge upon my back,
Wrongs me not half so much as he who shuts
The gates of honor on me."

THE daughters of the year,
 One after one, through that still garden passed.
 Each garlanded with her peculiar flower
 Danced into light, and died into the shade;
 And each in passing touched with some new grace
 Or seemed to touch her, so that day by day,
 Like one that never can be wholly known,
 Her beauty grew; till Autumn brought an hour
 For Eustace, when I heard his deep 'I will,'
 Breathed like the covenant of God, to hold
 From thence through all the world! but I rose up
 Full of his bliss, and following her dark eyes,
 Felt earth as air beneath me."



THOUGHT in the mine may come forth gold or dross;
 When coined in word, we know its real worth:
 If sterling, store it for thy future use;
 'T will buy thee benefit, perhaps renown.
 Thought, too, delivered, is the more possessed;
 Teaching we learn, and giving we retain
 The births of intellect; when dumb, forgot."



INVIDIOUS Grave! how dost thou rend in sunder
 Whom love has knit, and sympathy made one!
 A tie more stubborn far than Nature's band.
 Friendship! mysterious cement of the soul!
 I owe thee much. Thou hast deserved from me
 Far, far beyond what I can ever pay.
 Oft have I proved the labors of thy love,
 And the warm efforts of thy gentle heart,
 Anxious to please. Oh! when my friend and I
 In some thick wood have wandered heedless on
 Hid from the vulgar eye, and set us down,
 How often have we thought of joys departed."



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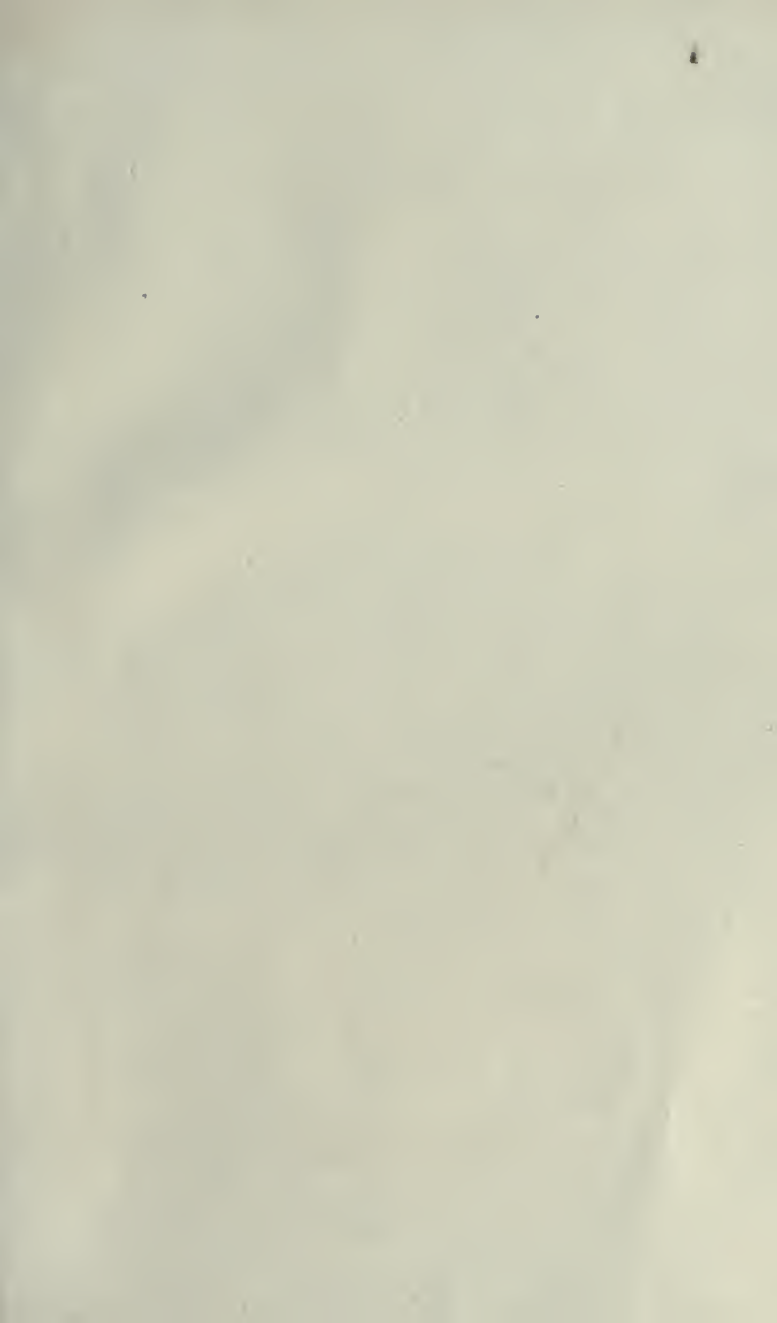
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